Attracting Teachers to Remote Tasmanian Communities and Encouraging them to Stay

by

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Declaration of Originality

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for a degree or diploma by the University or any other institution, except by way of background information and duly acknowledged in the thesis, and to the best of my knowledge and belief it contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due acknowledgement is made in the text or the thesis, nor does the thesis contain any material that infringes copyright.

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Statement of Ethical Conduct

The research associated with this thesis abides by the international and Australian codes on human and animal experimentation, the guidelines by the Australian Government's Office of the Gene Technology Regulator, and the rulings of the Safety, Ethics and Institutional Biosafety Committees of the University.

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Abstract

Attracting teachers to, and retaining them in, remote and isolated areas has been an ongoing issue nationally and internationally. The literature shows the majority of strategies designed to address it have focused on attracting teachers. These strategies are commonly aimed at graduate teachers, and current practice in Tasmania is no different.

This study used mixed methods to investigate why teachers choose to teach in remote Tasmanian communities, why teachers leave remote communities, strategies and practices being used to attract and retain teachers to remote communities, and how these strategies and practices might be improved or added to.

Past teachers and principals, teachers and principals working in the communities in 2015, a non-school based Tasmanian Department of Education employee, University of Tasmania Faculty of Education pre-service teacher educators, pre-service teachers who were in their final year of their initial teacher education program in 2015, and remote community members in the remote communities were involved in this study.

Data analysis revealed that the majority of teachers that go to the remote community are beginning teachers, are lured by permanency, and leave after 3 years. It was found that current practice does not attract experienced teachers (and principals) resulting in a lack of collegial support and mentoring for beginning teachers.

A key finding was that responsibility for attracting and retaining teachers to remote Tasmanian communities does not lie just with the Tasmanian Department of Education. The University of Tasmania Faculty of Education plays a key role to

influence attraction, and principals in remote schools, and the remote communities themselves play key roles in influencing retention.

The study suggests improvement of practice and concludes with recommendations that have the potential to result in a different approach in thinking about these issues in Tasmania and beyond.

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Thank you to the remote community members, the non-school based Department of Education employee, teachers, principals, pre-service teachers, and University of Tasmania pre-service teacher educators, who were willing to participate in the study, and for providing the rich data I was able to collect. Thank you for sharing your time and allowing me to develop an understanding of your perceptions and experiences of the attraction and retention of teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background to this Study

This chapter provides the background for studying the attraction and retention of teachers in government schools in remote Tasmanian communities. A geographical description of Tasmania is provided followed by a more specific description of the geographical and meteorological conditions of the remote communities that were the site of this study. Pseudonyms have been used for all Tasmanian towns referred to in this study. In this chapter, the towns are described in terms of:

- distance from the closest major population centre and distance from each other;
- a brief historical sketch of each community; and
- the current situation for the provision of education for students living in each community.

Included in this chapter are descriptions of the communities based on the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (University of Adelaide, 2014), the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia^{+} (an extension of Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia) (University of Adelaide, 2014), the Australian Standard Geographic

Classification (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013b), and the Australian Statistic Geography Standard (Department of Health, 2011).

1.2 Research Questions

The study focused specifically on the four government schools in four remote Tasmanian communities. These schools are located in the towns of Gould, McDonald, Fraser and Montana. Each had continually struggled to attract and to retain teachers beyond the current 3-year requirement to when permanent teachers became eligible for a transfer under the Industrial Agreement (see Section 6.5.1). The study considered the following research questions:

- Why do teachers choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities? (Q1)
- Why do teachers transfer out of Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities? (Q2)
- What strategies and policies have been implemented for attracting and retaining teachers to Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities? (Q3); and
- What strategies do key stakeholders believe may work for attracting and then retaining teachers in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities? (Q4)

The findings of this study are positioned within the context of national and international research regarding the attraction and retention of teachers in remote communities. Chapters 4 – 7 present the findings for each question.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Attracting teachers to, and retaining teachers in, isolated and remote schools is not only a continuing problem for all Australian education authorities, it is an ongoing international issue (Lyons, 2009). The attraction and retention of teachers in remote schools is a popular area of research with many studies investigating factors that affect the initial attraction of teachers and factors that affect retention of teachers. The four government schools in Gould, McDonald, Fraser and Montana are not exempt from these issues. These schools have staffing vacancies which have, traditionally, been filled following the advertisement of permanent positions, with the requirement that the successful applicant will remain in that remote Tasmanian community for a minimum of 3 years prior to transferring to another location anywhere in Tasmania. Beginning teachers fill the majority of these positions. At the completion of 3 years' teaching, the vast majority of teachers transfer out of their schools in remote communities. As a result of this constant rollover, many students attending these remote schools (Kindergarten to Year 12) have been taught only by teachers in their first, second or third year of teaching.

This study focused on issues related to attracting teachers to, and retaining teachers in, isolated communities. In the context of these issues, pre-service teacher (PST) preparation was also considered. Factors that contribute to the difficulty of attracting and retaining teachers in isolated schools have been identified, and reasons for which teachers choose to teach in isolated communities, and subsequently leave were explored. Much of the Australian research on the attraction and retention of teachers to remote communities has focused on mainland Australian states. This study is situated in the context of remote Tasmanian communities that have unique topographic and demographic characteristics. The present study targets the gap in Australian research to include a Tasmanian perspective on the issues related to the attraction and retention of teachers. Including the views and suggestions of

those at the coalface – teachers, principals, and community members – has provided a location-specific view of education, "rather than a city-based set of solutions" (Wallace & Boylan, 2007) to remote education. In arguing for location-specific solutions, the study is positioned to make a useful contribution to the field.

1.4 Educational Inequity as Experienced by Remote Communities

This section focuses on the educational inequities that remote communities might experience as a result of problems of attraction to, and retention in, teachers to their communities. Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, and Wyckoff (2013) and Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2005) observed, teacher retention may affect student learning in several ways. One way they identified was that in schools with a high-turnover of teachers, the students are more likely to get inexperienced teachers who are less effective, on average, than experienced teachers. Cuervo (2016) found that students expressed concern at teacher turn-over as it made it difficult for parents, students and the community to construct relationships with teachers within the timeframe they were in the community. Reid et al. (2012) commented on how constant teacher turnover affected the level of commitment to education shown by students and families. This might in part, explain the low school attendance in Tasmanian remote schools. ACARA (2017a) measured acceptable school attendance as "attending 90% or more of the time" and in 2015, school attendance in the four government remote schools in this study varied between 30% and 59% of students, attending school, 90% of the time or more. Hattie (2003), identified six major sources of variance in student outcomes with teachers accounting for 30% of this variance. He asserted that it is what teachers know, do and care about that is most powerful in the learning equation. The combination of the difficulty in constructing relationships, the importance of teachers to student outcomes (Hattie, 2003),

along with the level of effectiveness of inexperienced teachers, might explain the decline in student outcomes in remote Tasmanian communities. (Appendix A, shows the decline in Year 5 student outcomes when comparing state and school data from the National Assessment Program – Literacy and Numeracy (NAPLAN) testing.) In 2015, the remote government schools ranged from 21– 13 points behind the Tasmanian mean score for all five areas being measured.

This study focused on one aspect relevant to educational inequity: that is, attracting teachers to the remote community and retaining them there beyond 3 years. The Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians (hereafter the Declaration) (Barr et al., 2008) listed examples of circumstances and values that should not affect students accessing schooling and included socioeconomic background and geographic location. The Declaration stated that ensuring socioeconomic disadvantage ceased to be a determinant of educational outcomes, should be a priority, along with reducing the effect of other sources of disadvantage, such as remoteness. The Declaration encouraged various stakeholders to have high expectations for educational outcomes. These goals are difficult to meet when beginning teachers make up the main supply of teachers in the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities with many remaining in remote Tasmanian communities for 3 years (or less). In addition, these schools are often lead by beginning, and hence inexperienced, principals.

1.5 Wicked Problems

Rittel and Webber (1973) coined the term ‘wicked’ to describe problems associated with social policy. Four decades later, their framework continues to find relevance for addressing complex policy problems and is regularly referred to by researchers engaging with problems that can be characterised as wicked. Wicked problems have been further

characterised as ‘malignant’, ‘tricky’ or ‘aggressive’ and should not be treated as ‘tame’, that is, simple to solve, and they should not be tamed impulsively (Corbett & Tinkham, 2014; Cranston et al., 2016; Rittel & Webber, 1973) as this would mean ignoring the depth and breadth of the problem, or their “inherent wickedness” (Rittel & Webber, 1973, p. 161). Wicked problems cannot be completely described, there are no solutions, and are “…highly resistant to resolution…” (Australia Public Service Commission (APSC), 2007, p. iii). They cannot be approached using “…formulas or data-drive technical-rational processes…” (Corbett & Tinkham, 2014, p. 691) and need to be continuously re-solved (Jordan, Kleinsasser, & Roe, 2014; Rittel & Webber, 1973).

Wicked problems have many stakeholders who approach the problem from their own contexts, and with their own views and solutions (APSC, 2007; Cranston et al., 2016; Jordan et al., 2014) but “…they go beyond the capacity of any one organisation to understand and respond to” (APSC, 2007, p. 1). It is difficult to isolate what the problem is and who owns it (Corbett & Tinkham, 2014). There are often disagreements between stakeholders about the cause, how to address them (Cranston et al., 2016) and “…where and how we should intervene…” (Rittel & Webber, 1973, p. 159) even if it is known what needs to be achieved. It is difficult to identify the action or actions that might close the gap between the what is, and what ought to be (Rittel & Webber, 1973). No one organisation or stakeholder is responsible for a wicked problem (APSC, 2007), so when one organisation or stakeholder, attempts to resolve a wicked problem there are repercussions for the other organisations or stakeholders (Rittel & Webber, 1973).

Part of the solution of wicked problems involves changing the behaviour of groups of individuals (APSC, 2007) and so engaging all stakeholders in developing collaborative strategies (Cranston et al., 2016) a well as the implementation, is required for solving, or at minimum, managing wicked problems (APSC, 2007). Corbett and Tinkham (2014) suggested

that stakeholders consider the problem from one another's perspective, and communicate respectfully and diplomatically in order to attend to the problem, and to move forward.

To provide a detailed description of a wicked problem, there needs to be detailed knowledge of possible solutions beforehand because problem understanding and problem resolution coexist (Rittel & Webber, 1973). It is not possible to understand a problem without knowing the context (Rittel & Webber, 1973) because wicked problems are contingent to context (Cranston et al., 2016). The difficulty with wicked problems, is that each stakeholder has varying and at times, competing views and experiences of the context (Jordan et al., 2014).

A wicked problem has no stopping rule (Jordan et al., 2014; Rittel & Webber, 1973). That is, there are no measures for completely understanding the problem, and no end to the causal factors linking organisations. There is always the possibility of discovering a better solution (Rittel & Webber, 1973).

There are no quick fixes or simple solutions for a wicked problem (APSC, 2007; Cranston et al., 2016), just as there are no right or wrong answers (APSC, 2007; Cranston et al., 2016; Jordan et al., 2014). Solutions are usually classified as good or bad (Jordan et al., 2014; Rittel & Webber, 1973), better or worse, or satisfying or good enough (Rittel & Webber, 1973). There are no rational or linear solutions to wicked problems (Cranston et al., 2016) and in terms of judging the 'solution' Rittel and Webber (1973) noted that anyone can judge the solution, but they do not have the authority to 'correct' the problem. Solutions to wicked problems have no immediate or ultimate test of their effectiveness (Rittel & Webber, 1973).

Over time solutions to wicked problems and attempts at their solution have consequences. Some solutions produce undesirable consequences, and in these situations, it may have been better had nothing been instigated (Rittel & Webber, 1973). The full effect of

the consequences of a ‘solution’ to a wicked problem cannot be assessed until all consequences have been exhausted, and there is no way of predicting all these and all the lives that will be affected beforehand or within a limited timeframe (Rittel & Webber, 1973).

There are no second chances to implementing a solution for a wicked problem. There is no opportunity to learn by trial and error. Rittel and Webber (1973) noted that every implemented solution has consequences and cannot be undone. As noted by the APSC (2007), “Some wicked problems are characterised by chronic policy failure” (p. 5). Many people are affected by the solutions and in most cases, large amounts of money spent, both of which are irreversible. Every implementation counts and reversing decisions, or attempts to correct the undesired consequences, produces more wicked problems (Rittel & Webber, 1973).

There are no limits to potential solutions to wicked problems. There is no way of proving that all solutions have been recognised and considered. Rittel and Webber (1973) noted that it is a matter of judgement, as to which of the solutions will be implemented and which ones will be ignored. What is considered feasible to be implemented relies on the extent of trust and credibility between the various bodies and organisations. Rittel and Webber (1973) noted there is no way of knowing whether all the solutions to a wicked problem have been identified or considered, and so the aim should be to solve the problem as best as possible.

“…Wicked problems are unique because they are context-dependent” (Jordan et al., 2014, p. 416). Rittel and Webber (1973) stated that with wicked problems “…every situation is likely to be one of a kind” (p. 165). There might be similarities between current wicked problems and previous ones, but there might be additional distinctive factors between them. A ‘solution’ might be applied to a ‘familiar’ problem which in fact, is not compatible to the problem (Rittel & Webber, 1973).

Every wicked problem is a manifestation of another problem (Jordan et al., 2014; Rittel & Webber, 1973) in that it will have smaller problems embedded within the larger problem, or, a number of related problems compounded together (APSC, 2007; Cranston et al., 2016), making the problem difficult to succinctly define (APSC, 2007) or to solve the smaller problems individually (Cranston et al., 2016). Rittel and Webber (1973) suggested not trying to solve the manifestation but the problem, and not to attempt to solve the smaller problems individually because such an approach makes it more difficult to solve the larger problem. Rittel and Webber (1973) found that with most wicked social problems, members of organisations tend to identify the locus of problems at a level other than their own.

Discrepancies in stakeholders' representations of wicked problems can be explained in a number of ways, and the choice of explanation determines the nature of the resolution (Rittel & Webber, 1973). There is no rule to decide which explanation is right. Rather, Rittel and Webber (1973) used the term 'attitudinal criteria' (p. 166) to explain that the choice of explanation is determined according to plausibility. People choose the explanation that fits their intentions and can be adapted to the 'solutions' available to them.

1.6 The Position of the Researcher

My personal history with the four communities in the remote region of Tasmania that was the site of this study was the reason for choosing the topic of attraction to and the retention of teachers in the region. The four government schools were chosen as the focus because they are the remote schools in Tasmania I am familiar with. There was a need to limit the scope of the study to one sector. At the end of 1991, the end of my first year of teaching, I received notification that my 1992 appointment would be in one of these small remote communities. I had never been to this community in fact I had no recollection of having been to the region. At that time, there was no option for refusing the appointment,

other than leaving the employ of the education department. I was allocated an education department-owned house located right next to the school, and was required to share the house with another teacher based on the criteria that we were both single and female. At the end of the 1992 school year, I was notified of my next appointment, which required me to move out of the region.

At the end of 1995, on the basis of my 5 years' continuous service as a temporary teacher, I was granted permanency with the education department from the beginning of the 1996 school year. However, there was a 'catch'. I had to return to the region in which I'd worked in 1992, but to a different community from the one in which I had previously lived. My permanent appointment was for 2 years because I had already worked in the region for 1 year, and there was an agreement at the time that teachers were not required to teach more than a total of 3 years in a remote region.

Based on my previous experience in the region, I willingly accepted the appointment and was quite excited at the prospect of returning there. However, I found that things were very different compared to my first experience in the region. A major difference from my previous experience in 1992 was that the principal had been amazingly supportive and very approachable. His wife was a fellow teacher and she was equally supportive both in and out of school and encouraged community engagement, introducing new teachers to various community members who were not parents of students at the school.

In 1997, in what should have been my second and final year at the school, I received a letter informing me that the 'rules' had changed and that a new Industrial Agreement had been introduced requiring 3 consecutive years. Under this agreement I would have to remain in the region for another year. After attempts to negotiate a transfer with various Department of Education (DoE) representatives were unsuccessful I wrote directly to the then Director of Education (the highest position in the DoE at the time) outlining my situation, my attempts to

negotiate a transfer, and my unhappiness regarding the change of rule, as well as my 0.8 permanent status that had been based on my fraction for 1 year out of 5 years of teaching. I was fortunate to receive a response and was assured by the Director that the original agreement would be honoured. I would be granted a transfer at the end of the year without losing my permanent status and to top it off, my permanent status had been increased to full-time.

My next sojourn to the remote region was in 2003 when I was employed for one day a week in a third community to teach Indonesian to classes in Grades 3 – 8. I didn't have anything to do with the community in the area for the duration of this appointment and in the winter, I travelled to the community on the evening before my work day and travelled out again in the afternoon after the day's teaching. During the warmer months, I did a daily return trip. The teaching staff with whom I had contact during the year were all very friendly and welcoming. Some negative student behaviours towards me, however, went unaddressed by senior staff/the principal. As a result, the principal at the school within which I worked for 3 days a week during 2003 put a stop to me continuing my role within the remote school beyond September of that year, and increased my employment in her school to 4 days per week.

In 2007 after a 2-term stint as Acting Principal in a country school near Williamstown (not a remote town), I gained an Acting Principal position for 2 terms in a fourth school in the remote region. At the end of the 2007 school year my appointment was continued for a further 3 years as Acting Principal. At the end of 2010 I won the substantive position enabling me to stay longer.

During 2013 I decided it was time to leave my position as principal in the remote school, based on a number of factors that had changed during my appointment, one of which was a reclassification of principal salary for 'new' principals to the position. Under that

agreement I was not eligible to receive the additional salary because I was already in the position. The result of this ineligibility was that I was the lowest paid principal in the region because the other small school had a newly appointed principal eligible for the increased payment. However, my request for a demotion to Advanced Skills Teacher (AST) (a senior staff position less than principal but close to the salary I was receiving as principal) was denied because my previous substantive position had been a teacher, so if I transferred out of the region it would be as a classroom teacher. There was a change in DoE managers the following year, and the incoming manager allowed me to transfer as an AST at the end of the 2014 school year.

From my own experience, I was a beginning teacher who initially accepted a teaching position in the remote community in order to obtain work as a teacher and my second appointment was accepted in order to be granted permanency. For me, my enjoyment of the appointments in the remote region had nothing to do with the geographical location or the community but were based on my experience of the leadership of the school. It was not until my appointment as a principal, that I understood the affect of the never-ending stream of beginning teachers and the subsequent impact on the educational outcomes of the students. I experienced the pressure from the DoE, placed on principals to continually improve student outcomes, in schools with continually changing and mainly novice teachers.

It was while I was principal in the region that I commenced this research and chose its topic, believing there must be a better way of ‘doing things’ but also based on my own experiences as to why I chose to teach in the remote communities and why I chose to leave. Three of my four appointments to the remote region were due to work related incentives. The first was employment, the second permanency, and the third, the opportunity of a promotion. The reasons for leaving were not all by choice. The first time I left was not by choice, a permanent teacher was moving into the community, the second was by choice, because of the

leadership, and the last was by choice, with a number of factors influencing my decision but it was mainly influenced by salary. In undertaking this study, I was interested to find out whether my decisions to teach in the remote communities and to leave the remote communities were the norm – was it employment opportunities that influenced the decision of other teachers to choose to teach in remote communities? Were there distinct influences in teachers choosing to stay or leave the remote communities?

1.7 Tasmania

Tasmania is the only Australian island state (Figure 1.1), and is located southeast of the Australian mainland (Figure 1.2).

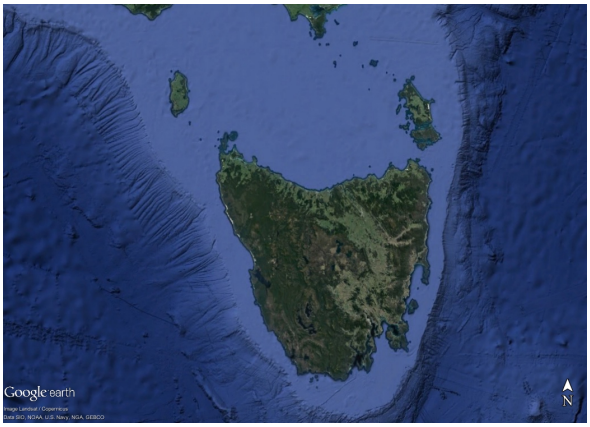

Figure 1.1. Tasmania, the island state of Australia (Google Earth Pro, 2015).

Figure 1.2. The proximity of the Australian mainland to Tasmania (Google Earth Pro, 2015a).

Tasmania covers an area of just over 68,000 km² (including offshore islands) or approximately 0.9% of the total area of Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), 2011c), separated from mainland Australia by Bass Strait, a 240 km stretch of water (ABS, 2011c). From north to south Tasmania spans 517 km (including the offshore islands) and at its greatest width Tasmania is 400 km wide (ABS, 2011c).

In 2013 Tasmania's population was 513 159 with approximately 42% living in and around Tasmania's capital city (ABS, 2015). Tasmania has 202 government schools, of which four are located in the remote Tasmanian communities sited in this study (Tasmanian Department of Education, 2013).

1.8 The Site of this Study

The remote region of Tasmania in which this study was conducted is in the direct path of the Roaring Forties; wild westerly winds of up to 200km an hour that bring wet weather and cold temperatures (Catchpole, 2007). It rains between 250 and 300 days per year with annual rainfall of between 1 and 4 metres (Australian Government Bureau of Meteorology,

2011). Temperatures range from minima of -5 °C (23 °F) in the winter to a maximum of 36 °C (97 °F) in the summer (Australian Government Bureau of Meteorology, 2011). There are two highways leading into the remote communities, one from the north and the other from the south. Roads between the four population centres are sometimes closed during the winter months due to snowfall and dangerous driving conditions, isolating the towns not only from the rest of Tasmania but, on occasion, from each other as well (West Coast Service Providers, 2010).

1.9 The Remote Communities

The remote region of Tasmania is the site of five separate communities, each with unique characteristics. The five communities are Farrell, McDonald, Montana, Gould and Fraser. The nearest city, Williamstown, has a population of 22 777 (ABS, 2015). Four of the five communities have schools. Table 1.1 shows the decline of the region's population between 1986 and 2016. This information provides content in relation to which the findings of this study can be understood.

1.9.1 Socioeconomic Profile of Students

Table 1.1 shows that the student distribution based on student background, or socioeconomic profile, for each school in the four communities slightly increased between 2008 and 2015 (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2018). However, it also shows that the distribution of most of the students in all four schools over the 8-year period remained in the bottom 50% by Index of Community Socio Economic Advantage (ICSEA)[1] (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2018).

[1] A measurement of educational advantage used by ACARA, with a mean score of 1000 and a standard deviation of 100 (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2014a)

Table 1.1

ICSEA Distribution of Students in the Remote Communities 2015

	Bottom Quarter				Middle Quarter		Top Quarter	
	2008	2015	2008	2015	2008	2015	2008	2015
McDonald	83%	77%	17%	16%	0%	6%	1%	1%
Gould	88%	64%	11%	26%	0%	8%	0%	2%
Montana	100%	56%	0%	28%	0%	12%	0%	4%
Fraser	70%	54%	28%	28%	0%	13%	2%	5%
Australia	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%

Note: Sourced from Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2018). My school. Retrieved from https://www.myschool.edu.au/

Table 1.2 shows the ICSEA scores for the four schools in 2008 and 2015 according to ACARA (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2018). The schools in McDonald and Gould showed a drop in their ICSEA scores, or alternatively, an increase in their level of educational disadvantage over the 7-year period. Although Montana and Fraser remained relatively unchanged in their score, they continue to be educationally disadvantaged. Although Table 1.1 shows the distribution of students based on economic background for McDonald and Gould showed a slight improvement, Table 1.2 shows the level of educational disadvantage increased.

Table 1.2

ICSEA Scores of the Four Schools in the Remote Communities 2008 & 2015

Town	2008	2015
McDonald	913	862
Gould	906	885
Montana	916	915
Fraser	924	928

Note: Sourced from Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority. (2018). My school. Retrieved from https://www.myschool.edu.au/

1.9.2 Decline in Population

The five towns saw a combined 54% decline in population in the 30-year period between 1986 and 2016. Table 1.3 shows the population of the five towns as provided by the ABS (2017). The population data for the five towns derived from the 1996 census, were combined so a separate breakdown for each community is not provided for that year in the table. Fraser is the only town that has seen an increase in population over the 30-year period. This study has focused on the remote communities from 2000 onwards and Table 1.3 shows that all five towns have shown a decline in population since the 2001 census.

Table 1.3

Population of the Five Remote Communities 1986 - 2016

Remote Town	1986	1991	1996	2001	2006	2011	2016	% variance (1986 – 2016)	% variance (2001 – 2016)
Farrell	1 117	718		249	195	192	163	-85%	-34%
McDonald	2 102	1 637		1 103	1 032	922	708	-66%	-35%
Montana	1 610	1 132		897	845	728	712	-56%	-20%
Gould	3 593	3 368		2 343	2 117	1 975	1 790	-50%	-23%
Fraser	516	597		735	638	660	708	+37%	-4%
Total Population	8 938	7 452	6 336	5 327	4 827	4 477	4 081	-54%	-23%

Note: Sourced from Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2017). QuickStats. Retrieved from http://www.abs.gov.au/websitedbs/censushome.nsf/home/quickstats?opendocument&navpos=220

1.10 Categories and Indices of Geographic Locations

The following sections explain different categories of geographic locations used to define remoteness by various Australian organisations. The first are the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia and the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia^{+}. These were developed and used by the National Centre for Social Applications of Geographic Information Science (GISCA) and the Australian Government Department of Health and Ageing (AGDHA). Another measure of remoteness, which is used by the ABS, is the Australian Statistical Geography Standard (ASGS). The ASGS is also explained in the following section. Included in the explanations of the categories are remoteness indices of towns and cities from different Australian states and territories including the Tasmanian communities which are the focus of this research.

1.10.1 Remoteness Structures and Geographic Classifications

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) provides a broad range of social and demographic statistics using the Remoteness Structure of the Australian Statistical Geography Standard. The Remoteness Structure is an ABS structure, defined and maintained by the ABS (ABS, 2013b). The Remoteness Structure divides each state and territory into several regions on the basis of their relative access to services (ABS, 2013b). The Remoteness Structure is categorised into Remoteness Areas. The Remoteness categories are assigned based on the calculation of the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA). These are described in the following sections to illustrate the complexity of conceptualising remoteness and to assist with understanding the context of the communities in which this study was situated.

1.10.2 Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA)

The ARIA was developed by the National Centre for Social Applications of Geographic Information Science (GISCA) and the Australian Department of Health and Ageing in 1997/98 as a joint project (University of Adelaide, 2014). It is based on geographic accessibility to services in non-metropolitan Australia and is measured in terms of access to four categories of service centres via road networks (Department of Health, 2011). It is based on the principles that communities that have less access to service centres are more remote and communities with greater access to service centre are less remote (Department of Health, 2011). ARIA enables comparisons of remoteness for all of Australia (Department of Health, 2011), and is presented as a range of variables from 0 (representing high accessibility) to 12 (acknowledging high remoteness) (Department of Health, 2011; Department of Health and Aged Care, 2001).

Along with the score rating, the ARIA provides ratings of highly accessible (HA), accessible (A), moderately accessible (MA), remote (R), and very remote (VR). Highly accessible (0 – 1.84) refers to areas with relatively unrestricted access to a wide range of goods, services, and opportunities for social interaction (Department of Health and Aged Care, 2001). Accessible (>1.84 – 3.51) refers to areas with some restrictions on access to some goods, services, and opportunities for social interaction (Department of Health and Aged Care, 2001). Moderately accessible (>3.51 – 5.80) areas have significantly restricted access to goods, services, and opportunities for social interaction (Department of Health and Aged Care, 2001). Remote (>5.80 – 9.08) refers to areas with very restricted access to goods, services, and opportunities for social interaction (Department of Health and Aged Care, 2001). Very Remote (>9.08 – 12) areas are disadvantaged in terms of location, with very little access to goods, services, and opportunities for social interaction (Department of Health and Aged Care, 2001).

Examples of Australian locations categorised under the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia provided by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (2004) are shown in Table 1.4 with the average remoteness variables in parentheses (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 2004). The five communities have been combined and categorised as Moderately Accessible by the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia.

Table 1.4

Towns and their Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia Rating

Location	Highly Accessible	Accessible	Moderately Accessible	Remote	Very Remote
New South Wales	Sydney (0.000)	Dubbo (3.310)			
Victoria	Melbourne (0.000)		Hindmarsh (5.390)		
	Ballarat Central (0.270)				
South Australia		Port Augusta (3.021)	Flinders Ranges (5.099)		Coober Pedy (10.989)
Western Australia	Fremantle (0.000)		Denmark (4.752)	Northampton (8.630)	Broome (12.000)
Northern Territory				Alice Springs (6.000)	Tennant Creek (12.000)
Tasmania	Bowen* (1.2100)	Williamstown* (2.406)	Steiglitz* (5.706)		Gidley Island* (9.460)
	Brady* (1.210)	Hardwicke* (2.101)	**The Remote Communities (6.650)**		Parker Island* (10.010)

Note: Sourced from Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2004). Rural, regional and remote health: A guide to remoteness classifications. Retrieved from http://www.aihw.gov.au/publication-detail/?id=6442467589. Pseudonyms (*) are used for Tasmanian towns.

In 2001 the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia was further developed to produce the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia+ ($ARIA^{+}$). Further versions of

ARIA+ were distributed in 2006 and 2011 (University of Adelaide, 2014) as shown in Table 1.6 (in Section 1.10.3).

1.10.3 Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia^{+} (ARIA^{+}).

Whereas the original ARIA variables ranged from 0 for high accessibility to 12 for high remoteness, ARIA+ is presented as a range of variables from 0 for high accessibility, to 15 for high remoteness (University of Adelaide, 2014).

ARIA+ is an index of remoteness obtained by measuring road distances between populated localities and Service Centres (University of Adelaide, 2014). It disregards the socio-economic status and population size of communities (University of Adelaide, 2014). Australia is overlaid by a 1 kilometre grid with each grid square allocated a value ranging from 0 (high accessibility) to 15 (high remoteness), based on road distance measurements from five service centres in each of the five categories shown in Table 1.4. The measured distance to a service centre (from each of the five categories) is divided by the national average of that service centre to produce a ratio (University of Adelaide, 2013). If a road distance divided by the national average produces a ratio higher than three, the ratio is reduced to three. All five ratios are added together to produce an ARIA^{+} score. For example: To calculate the ARIA^{+} score for Montana, the population of the service centres from categories A- E are required. As Tasmania does not have a population to match the service centre A category, Bowen statistics are applied for service centre A and B. According to the 2011 Census, Bowen had a population of 211,656 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b) and is 298km from Montana (GlobeFeed.com, 2014); Hardwicke (service centre C) had a population of 43,224 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b) and is 185 km from Montana (GlobeFeed.com, 2014); Williamstown (service centre D) had a population of 17,334 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b) and is 139km away from Montana (GlobeFeed.com,

2014); and Gould had a population of 1975 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011b) and is 38km from Montana (GlobeFeed.com, 2014). Using the formula, Montana's ARIA^{+} score would be: 298/418+298/217+185/132+139/84+38/47=0.71+1.37+1.40+1.65+0.81=5.94.

Table 1.5

Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia^{+}

Service Centre Category	Urban Centre Population	National Average Score for Service Centre
A	250 000 persons or more	418
B	48 000 – 249 999 persons	217
C	18 000 – 47 999 persons	132
D	5 000 – 17 999 persons	84
E	1 000 – 4 999 persons	47

Note: Sourced from University of Adelaide. (2013). Australian Population and Migration Research Centre: ARIA (Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia). Retrieved from http://www.adelaide.edu.au/apmrc/research/projects/category/about_aria.html

The Australian locations categorised under the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia in Table 1.4 have been categorised under the Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia^{+} and shown in Table 1.6. McDonald has been rated as Outer Regional in Remoteness Area, and as Moderately Accessible in the Remoteness Class. Gould, Fraser and Montana have all been rated as Remote for both Remoteness Area and Remoteness Class.

Table 1.6

Towns and their Accessibility/Remoteness Index of Australia[+] *Rating*

Remoteness Areas	Major Cities	Inner Regional	Outer Regional	Remote	Very Remote
ARIA Score	0 < = 0.20	> 0.20 < = 2.40	> 2.40 < = 5.92	> 5.92 < = 10.53	> 10.53 < = 15
Remoteness Classes	Highly Accessible	Accessible	Moderately Accessible	Remote	Very Remote
ARIA Score	0 < 0.20	0.2 < 2.40	2.40 < 5.95	5.95 < 10.5	10.5 <15
New South Wales	Sydney 0	Dubbo 2			
Victoria	Melbourne 0			Hindmarsh 6	
	Ballarat Central 0				
South Australia		Port Augusta 2	Flinders Ranges 5		Coober Pedy 11
Western Australia	Fremantle 0		Denmark 3	Broome 9	
			Northampton 5		
Northern Territory				Alice Springs 6	Tennant Creek 12
Tasmania		Bowen* 2	Williamstown * 3	**Montana* 6**	Gidley Island* 15
		Hardwicke* 2	Spence* 5	**Gould* 6**	
		Brady* 2	**McDonald*** 5	**Fraser* 8**	

Note: Sourced from University of Adelaide. (2014). Australian Population and Migration Research Centre: ARIA and accessibility. Retrieved from http://www.adelaide.edu.au/apmrc/research/projects/category/aria.html Pseudonyms (*) are used for Tasmanian towns.

1.10.4 Australian Standard Geographic Classification

The Australian Standard Geographic Classification has four categories all based on population. The three main categories are: major urban areas (100 000 or more people), other urban areas (1 000 to 99 999 people), and bounded localities (200 to 999 people) (Moriarty, Danaher, & Danaher, 2003). Table 1.7 shows the Australian Standard Geographic Classification of the locations used in Table 1.6. The population of each centre is provided in brackets in each case. Gould has been classified as *Other Urban Area* with McDonald, Fraser and Montana classified as *Bounded Localities*. Bounded localities have a population of 200 – 999 and are classified as rural (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016) The population figures derive from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2014), and are based on the 2011 Census in which the four towns with schools have been separated. In Table 1.4, however, the ARIA rating was shown as a collective value for the region.

Table 1.7

Australian Standard Geographic Classification

Location	Major urban areas	Other urban areas	Bounded localities
New South Wales	Sydney (4 391 674)	Dubbo (32 327)	
Victoria	Melbourne (3 999 982) Ballarat (146 235)	Hindmarsh (5 798)	
South Australia		Coober Pedy (1 695) Port Augusta (13 658)	
Western Australia		Northampton (3 192) Broome (12 767) Fremantle (26 582)	
Northern Territory		Alice Springs (36 066) Tennant Creek (3 061)	
Tasmania	Bowen* (211 656)	Brady* (79 046) Williamstown* (17 334) Hardwicke* (43 224) **Gould*** **(1 975)** Gidley Island* (1 565)	**McDonald*** **(922)** **Fraser*** **(824)** **Montana*** **(728)** Parker Island* (776)

Note: Population figures sourced from Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2014). Census: For a brighter future. Retrieved from http://www.abs.gov.au/census Pseudonyms (*) are used for Tasmanian towns.

1.10.5 The Australian Statistical Geography Standard (ASGS) Remoteness Structure

The ASGS is the framework for classifying remoteness that has been in use by the ABS since 2011 (ABS, 2013a). The ASGS is used to compare regions from which the ABS collects geographical statistics, and about which the ABS publishes the data (ABS, 2013a).Within the ASGS is the ABS remoteness structure which uses five levels of

classification referred to as Remoteness Areas (RA) (Department of Health, 2011). Table 1.8 shows the 2011 Remoteness Areas for Australia and includes the RA category, including RA names, and the Statistical Area Level 1 average ARIA+ value ranges (ABS, 2013b). Examples of locations in each category in each state are shown in Table 1.9 with Gould, McDonald, Fraser and Montana categorised as Remote Australia.

Table 1.8

Remoteness Areas for Australia 2011

Remote Area Category	Remote Area Name	Statistical Area Level 1 Average ARIA+ Value Ranges
0	Major Cities of Australia	0 to 0.2
1	Inner Regional Australia	> 0.2 and ≤ 2.4
2	Outer Regional Australia	> 2.4 and ≤ 5.92
3	Remote Australia	> 5.92 and ≤ 10.53
4	Very Remote Australia	> 10.53
5	Migratory- Offshore - Shipping	
9	No usual address	

Note: Data sourced from Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2013b). Australian statistical geography standard (ASGS): Volume 5 - Remoteness structure, July 2011: Summary. Retrieved from http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Latestproducts/2C28C8B6013FB2D0CA257B03000D6DA8?opendocument

Table 1.9

Australian Bureau of Statistics Remoteness Area Examples

Location	Major cities of Australia	Inner regional Australia	Outer regional Australia	Remote Australia	Very remote Australia
New South Wales	Sydney (4 391 674)		Dubbo (32 327)		
Victoria	Melbourne (3 999 982)	Ballarat (146 235)	Hindmarsh (5 798)		
South Australia			Port Augusta (13 658)		Coober Pedy (1 695)
Western Australia	Fremantle 26 582)		Northampton (3 192)	Broome (12 767)	
Northern Territory				Alice Springs (36 066)	Tennant Creek (3 061)
Tasmania		Bowen* (211 656)	Williamstown* (17 334)	**Gould* (1 975)**	Gidley Island* (1 565)
		Brady* (79 046)	Hardwicke* (43 224)	**McDonald* (922)**	Parker Island* (776)
				Fraser* (824)	
				Montana* (728)	

Note: Data sourced from Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2013b). Australian statistical geography standard (ASGS): Volume 5 - Remoteness structure, July 2011: Summary. Retrieved from http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Latestproducts/2C28C8B6013FB2D0CA257B03000D6DA8?opendocument
Pseudonyms (*) are used for Tasmanian towns.

1.11 The Four Schools in Remote Tasmania

Using the data from Section 1.10, the four government schools which are the site of this study in the remote Tasmanian communities can be considered geographically isolated. In addition, the region is one of the five most disadvantaged Local Government Areas in Tasmania (ABS, 2011a). At times the schools have found it difficult to fill permanent

positions, especially those requiring experienced teachers for senior teacher or principal roles, with such positions often attracting one, or no, applicants. In some situations, experienced principals have been approached and asked to fill a vacancy in one of schools.

The four schools align with various combinations of remoteness and staffing difficulty definitions from other countries. For example, they are hard-to-staff schools, and have high teacher turnover, are geographically isolated (American Federation of Teachers, 2007), and require teachers to travel to service centres on winding, narrow, and undulating roads, similar to that described by the New Zealand Ministry of Education (2012).

The four schools fit the definitions of remote as described in Section 2.2.3, and isolated as described in Section 2.2.4. As d'Plesse (1992) found, categorisation as remote or isolated is related to difficulty in relation to accessing urban centres that provide the material needs of modern society. Access to social, cultural and economic facilities requires remote community members to travel between 96 and 125 km to Williamstown, the closest major population centre, or between 250 and 300 km to the state's capital, along winding and sometimes impassable roads.

The DoE refers to the four government schools focussed in this research, as 'isolated' and 'remote' based on their geographical location. They are four of just eight Tasmanian schools in this category (DoE, 2014c). The classification of isolated, as used by the DoE, is framed by context and by the assumptions and priorities of the DoE, as described by Moriarty et al. (2003).

1.12 Outline of the Thesis

Following Chapter One, which has provided detailed information about the geographic context of the study, Chapter Two provides a review of the literature relevant to the present study. The chapter explores what the literature says about the terms "rural",

"remote" and "isolated". It focuses on national and international issues encountered in relation to attracting and retaining teachers, and suggestions found in the literature to address these issues. Chapter Three provides a detailed account of the study's methodology, including explanations of the methodological approach, research design, methods, participants, and ethical considerations. Chapters 4 to 7 presents the findings of the study in relation to each of the research questions as well as discussing the findings in relation to the associated literature. Chapter 8 presents new ideas for addressing the attraction and retention of teacher to remote communities, and discusses the wickedness of the issue.

1.13 Summary of Chapter 1

This chapter described the location of Tasmania in relation to the Australian mainland. It provided geographical and meteorological descriptions of the region to assist in setting the scene for the thesis. The descriptions provide a forerunner to the data presented in future chapters. This chapter provided detailed information about the geographic context of the study. It has described the tools used in Australia to define the level of remoteness assigned to Australian locations. It presented a personal contextual background to the study. It outlined the four research questions significant to this study, as well as providing a brief overview of the thesis. The following chapter provides the literature associated with attracting and retaining teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter is divided into twelve sections. Section 2.2, defines the often-interchangeably used terms, hard-to-staff, rural, remote, and isolated, as well as presenting the definition used in this study. Section 2.3, presents the conceptual framework used in the analysis of the data collected in this study and Section 2.4, discusses the difficulties of attracting teachers to remote communities. Section 2.5, focuses on the difficulties of retaining teachers in remote communities and Section 2.6, discusses opportunities for pre-service teachers (PSTs) to undertake professional experiences in remote locations and the resulting influence for PSTs accepting a future remote teaching appointment. Section 2.7, identifies initiatives used to attract teachers to remote areas as well as initiatives used to retain them there. Section 2.8, provides suggestions found in the literature for addressing the attraction and retention issues. Section 2.9, focuses on the difficulties and possible strategies for attracting and retaining experienced teachers to remote areas as well as the benefits of having experienced teachers in remote schools. The summary of Chapter 2 is presented in 2.10.

2.2 Defining Hard-to-Staff, Rural, Remote, Regional and Isolated

Prior to focusing on attracting teachers to, and retaining them in, remote areas, it is necessary to clarify the meanings of the terms hard-to-staff, rural, remote, regional and isolated as used in the literature. It is difficult to establish the extent of the relationship between the terms at times, because they have been used interchangeably (Cobbold, 2006; d'Plesse, 1992; Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). They are generally used to describe locations in which difficulty attracting and retaining teachers is felt most acutely. The confusion among the terms was highlighted by what Moriarty et al. (2003) referred to as "a plethora of definitional possibilities" (p. 134). The interchangeable use of the terms by researchers, along with definitions based on demographic, occupational and socio-cultural factors, suggests that the diversity in definitions actually reflects the diversity and complexity of rural communities especially when considered in a range of countries (Cobbold, 2006). Halsey (2006) found the definitions varied, were often contested, and were culturally determined. For example, since the 1950 census, the United States Census Bureau has defined rural locations as those having up to 2,500 people (United States Census Bureau, 2017). Alternative definitions for 'rural' used in Canadian research, were recognised by du Plessis, Beshiri, Bollman, and Clemenson (2010) and they recommended the use of the term 'rural and small town' be used as a benchmark for understanding the rural population in Canada. The term was defined as "the population living in towns and municipalities outside the commuting zone of larger urban centres" (p. 1) where larger urban centres had a population of 10, 000 or more (du Plessis et al., 2010). Rural communities in China are defined as having the characteristics of poverty, remoteness, lack of access to, transport, cultural resources, educational facilities and recreational facilities as well as having limited opportunities for enrichment and personal advancement (Sargent & Hannum, 2005). Rural Africa has been defined as areas having:

poor infrastructure; very high temperatures and low rainfall; perennial flooding; frequent attacks by wild animals on people, domestic animals, and crops; and a high risk of contracting malaria and cholera (Mhishi, Bhukuvhani, & Sana, 2012).

In general, Ankrah-Dove (1982) stated “Remote rural areas are in a very real sense on the periphery, far from the centers (sic) of political, economic and cultural life (p. 5).” As summed up by Moriarty et al. (2003 p. 134), definitions "are framed by the contexts to which they refer and by the ideological assumptions and priorities of the researchers who deploy them". Moriarty et al. (2003) suggested “flexibility and fluidity” (p.134), in reference to these terms rather than fixed and unchanging definitions and suggested regional, rural and remote as other than metropolitan centres. The four Tasmanian towns that are the focus of this study are not metropolitan centres so in light of Moriarty et al.’s suggested “flexibility and fluidity” (p.134), regional, rural and remote could all be applied to them.

Defining these terms is not to insinuate a shortfall in education in rural, remote or isolated Australia, but rather, to recognise and value education in these regions (Moriarty et al., 2003). Other than the benefit of employment, there are social and personal benefits associated with living in non-metropolitan locations (Frid, Smith, Sparrow, & Trinidad, 2008). Remote teaching can offer diverse and rewarding experiences (Frid et al., 2008; Reid et al., 2012).

The Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA) (2011), found that in both educational and non-educational contexts each of the terms, rural, remote, regional and isolated, have different definitions and meanings across various agencies, providers and individuals. The confusion occurs within both education and non-education sectors. The criteria: population (size and density), the distance from larger population and service centres, additional travel and accommodation costs for users and providers, the high migration to larger population centres, level and scope of employment,

the existence of significant industry, and the range of educational services (the lack of such resulting in young people being required to move to larger centres for further education and training) are all used to define each of the terms.

As an example of an educational organisation defining remoteness, the Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) (2014b) categorises schools according to the degree of proximity to a state's capital city using the terms: 'metropolitan', 'provincial', 'remote' or 'very remote". These were originally defined in the MCEETYA Remoteness Classification 2001, and endorsed by education ministers, but have contradictions among the categories used. For example, and of particular relevance to the context of this study, McDonald and Montana were given a geographical location category of 'provincial' by ACARA (2014b) whereas Gould's category was 'remote'. However, McDonald and Montana are further away from the state's capital than Gould. Travelling to the state's capital from McDonald requires driving 55km to Gould first. Travelling to the state's capital from Montana requires initially driving 38km to Gould. By comparison, Fraser is 40km away from Gould (2km more than Montana and 15km less than McDonald) and was classified as 'remote'.

For the purpose of distinguishing which of these terms is used within this study, each of these terms, hard-to-staff, rural, remote, regional and isolated is explored in the following section.

2.2.1 Hard-to-Staff

Hard-to-staff schools have been defined as schools that satisfy one or more of the following conditions: serve large concentrations of poor and minority students (Prince, 2003); have low student performances and high teacher turnover (Berry, 2004); have serious staffing difficulties, (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2012); are geographically isolated

or in rural, impoverished locations (American Federation of Teachers, 2007); and require teachers to travel on winding, narrow or undulating roads of more than 10 km, or on roads that are 40 or more kilometres from a main highway, to access services (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2012). According to these criteria, the remote communities in Tasmania can all be classified as hard-to-staff.

2.2.2 Rural

The use of the term ‘rural’ depends on the criteria chosen to define the term (Stokes, Stafford, & Holdsworth, 1999). Criteria used include: population density, economic factors, socio-economic characteristics and remoteness from larger cities (Stokes et al., 1999). Even the ABS does not always clearly define ‘rural’. 'Rural' in the Australian Statistical Geography Standard, Section of State Structure is defined as ‘areas which are not part of any urban area’, however, ‘urban' is unhelpfully defined as ‘areas which are not part of any rural area’ (ABS, 2013c). Similarly, Corbett (2013b) noted rural can only be defined in relation to terms such as urban, further describing it as, “…the more or less wild spaces outside urban boundaries” (p. 2) but we attempt to know rural by measuring distances, usually to urban centres, or the population density.

‘Rural’ is the term used in American education research to denote rural, remote and isolated. Arnold, Newman, Gaddy, and Dean (2005) stated the difficulty in gaining a comprehensive understanding of issues in rural education is due to the numerous definitions of ‘rural’ used in the research. This may explain why there are discrepancies over the number of schools in the USA that are classified as rural. Irinaga-Bistolas, Schalock, Marvin, and Beck (2007) stated that 49% of schools in the USA were classified as rural where Hardre (2009) stated that 50% of the school districts, incorporating 33% of the schools, in the USA

are located in rural areas. Hardre (2009) noted that 25% of American students attended a rural school located well away from government centres.

In their description of rural America, Ahearn, Harmon, and Sanders (2006) stated that due to the diversity of rural America the term rural is not homogeneous. This view of defining 'rural' in the American context was supported by Monk (2007) who stated that "rural America defies generalization" (p. 156). Reid et al. (2012) acknowledged the term 'rural' should not be generalised and provided two elements to the term. The first denoted rural as being different from 'metropolitan' with the second element denoting accessibility to services and remoteness.

2.2.3 Remote

In very general terms, remoteness is a concept used to describe the differences between geographical regions (d'Plesse, 1992). Categorisation as remote or isolated is associated with the ease of access to urban centres that provide the material needs of the modern society (d'Plesse, 1992). Hence, difficulty of access to social, cultural and economic facilities such as medical services, housing, schools, recreational facilities, shops and employment opportunities contribute to remoteness (d'Plesse, 1992). Other criteria used to define 'remote' include: being identified as an Aboriginal community; having very low population density; distance from large towns and cities; and the economic activity of the community (Stokes et al., 1999). Research relating to education in remote communities has also used phrases such as the 'tyranny of distance' (first used by historian Geoffrey Blainey to describe Australia's geographical location from Great Britain) to describe the geographical distance between remote and urban communities (Baills, Bell, Greensill, & Wilcox, 2002).

The flexibility of definition put forward by Moriarty et al. (2003) was supported by d'Plesse (1992) who stated that regions regarded as isolated or remote show that the

correlation between distance from and the evidence of remoteness is not necessarily strong. He argued for including the concept of psychological remoteness associated with the cost, time and effort to travel to urban centres in defining remoteness. He also discussed remoteness in terms of informational remoteness, which may be defined as the number of computers and extent of Internet access per person within a population, along with the frequency and nature of information exchanges between communities. Regions can be recognised as geographically remote, informational remote or both (d'Plesse, 1992).

2.2.4 Isolated

Inverarity, (as cited in Boylan & McSwan, 1998) identified five types of isolation that teachers in remote communities may experience. These were physical (geographical and meteorological conditions), interpersonal (closeness to family and friends), cultural (community expectations and values highlighting cultural differences teachers experience in rural communities – including access to drama, craft, art and museums), intellectual (the lack of access to professional development (PD), pre-service training and poor school leadership), and personal (a lack of contact with people who have similar after-hours interests and hobbies.). Psychological isolation experienced by teachers in remote communities and associated with geographical isolation, was recognised as another form of isolation by d'Plesse (1992) and Squires (2003). Psychological isolation has been defined as the state of mind of individuals that prevents them from taking the measures, within their power, to minimise the negative effects of their location or to gain access to services found in urban centres (d'Plesse, 1992). The definition of psychological isolation was further developed by (Squires, 2003) when he described ‘isolation’ as a mix of both physical and psychological factors.

Squires (2003) identified several subcomponents of physical isolation. Location isolation is the physical distance from others, which may include being separated by distance or terrain. Realities of the Australian terrain (mountains, unbridged rivers), extremes of climate (floods, snow, ice), road conditions, and travel time, contribute to the difficulties in travel (Squires, 2003) . Squires (2003) recognised that geographic/location isolation in Australia is a fact of life for many people who live inland or on coastal areas that are difficult to access. Demographic isolation relates to the composition and distribution of population (Squires, 2003). Low population contributes to the absence of a critical mass of people of similar age, life stage, gender or common interest for some people (Squires, 2003). Access to services is the availability of services or the ease of access to them and economic capacity relates to the individual or community's economic resources (Squires, 2003). The absence of economic resources is a barrier to individuals or whole communities participating in sociocultural, economic and political processes (Squires, 2003). The greater the availability of economic resources, the more able individuals or communities are able to mitigate the effects of isolation (d'Plesse, 1992; Squires, 2003).

Squires (2003) proposed several subcomponents of psychological isolation. Values, attitudes and aspirations were defined as reclusive or exclusive with cultural affiliation having an influence. That is, an individual experiencing psychological isolation withdraws from engaging with the community, or the community resists including the individual, and neither is prepared or has the ability to make connections (Squires, 2003). Squires (2003) reasoned that certain values might limit individuals or communities in their willingness or capacity to make connections with others. Inverarity (1984) (as cited in Boylan & McSwan, 1998) identified community expectations and conflicting values as a subcomponent of cultural isolation. Hardre (2009) found that teachers who had been raised in a rural community, recognised the benefits of the local values as an advantage in their teaching, thus

suggesting teachers with a rural background as less likely to experience this subcomponent of psychological isolation.

Another subcomponent of psychological isolation discussed by Squires (2003) was disempowerment. Disempowerment can be isolating because it restricts the capacity of the disempowered individual or community to seek new contacts and networks. Lyons, Cooksey, Panizzon, Parnell, and Pegg (2006a) equated Squires' disempowerment, to low self-efficacy and the correlation this has with low morale. Roberts (2004) recognised that many communities identified as having significant social and economic disadvantage experience disempowerment. Some individuals and communities have a tradition of self-reliance and independence that discourages seeking help from or interaction with outsiders.

Community self-image, another subcomponent of psychological isolation, relates to the community as having perceptions of either being cohesive, aspirational and successful, or of being dysfunctional and ineffective (Squires, 2003). The more negative the community self-image, the more likely it is that the members of the community feel isolated.

Two subcomponents of psychological isolation identified by Squires (2003) and discussed by Portes (1998) were social capital and human capital. Portes (1998) explained social capital and human capital in relation to economic capital, "… economic capital is in people's bank accounts and human capital is inside their heads, social capital inheres in the structure of their relationships" (p. 7). Falk and Harrison (1998) further defined social capital as, the social organisation and collaboration providing the foundation of community spirit. It relates to the social networks, norms and trust that facilitate the collaboration. Coleman (1988) described human capital as created by changes in people that bring about skills and capabilities that make them able to act in new ways. Pil and Leana (2008) described human capital as the "know-how" (p. 1) and social capital as the "collaboration with others" (p. 1).

Squires (2003) found that where social capital is limited, psychological isolation is more likely to arise. He focused on the absence of depth and variety of human capital within a community and considered this to contribute to community members feeling psychologically isolated. Overcoming psychological isolation triggered by the absence of human capital requires skills and competencies (Squires, 2003). The perception of isolation is reinforced when the skills and competencies required to overcome it, are absent or deficient (Squires, 2003). In the categories of isolation recognised by Inverarity (1984) (as cited in Boylan & McSwan, 1998), the criteria he identified for personal isolation are the result of a lack of human capital.

Squires (2003) discussed the absence of effective leadership as a contributor to psychological isolation. He stated that conditions conducive to perceptions of isolation may flourish in the absence of an effective leader. Conversely the existence of psychological isolation may suppress the growth and development of leadership in the community.

As found in the literature, the terms rural, remote and isolated are also interchangeably used by the Tasmanian Department of Education (DoE) to describe the schools located in remote Tasmanian communities. As stated in Section 1.11, the DoE classifies the four schools in the towns in which this study was sited as rural and remote, but other DoE documentation classifies the communities as isolated (DoE, 2016b). The Tasmanian branch of the Australian Education Union refers to the schools as isolated for the purpose of eligibility for isolated incentives. Any one of the four definitions of, hard-to-staff, rural, remote, and isolated, as found in the literature, could be used to describe the four schools sited in this study (three are used in Tasmania by the DoE). For consistency in this study, the term ‘remote’ is used in reference to the four remote Tasmanian communities.

This Section 2.2, has discussed four often interchangeable terms found in the literature: hard-to-staff, rural, remote, and isolated. The next section discusses educational inequity as experienced by remote communities.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

This study used a number of theoretical frameworks that are described in this section. Section 2.3.1, focuses on place-based education, described by Corbett (2010b) as knowing who is being taught, and where they are situated, and to bring this into the classroom. Section 2.3.2, applies Bowlby's attachment theory to adults. Section 2.3.3, introduces the new concept of mobile autonomy, a combination the neoliberal subject, autonomy, and the freedom of mobility. Section 2.3.4, discusses the theory of planned behaviour, a refined theory of Ajzen's (1991) theory of reasoned action and Section 2.3.5, discusses the multiple interpretations of place attachment and the interpretation used in this study. Figure 2.1 shows the relationship between these theoretical positions that provide the conceptual framework for this study.

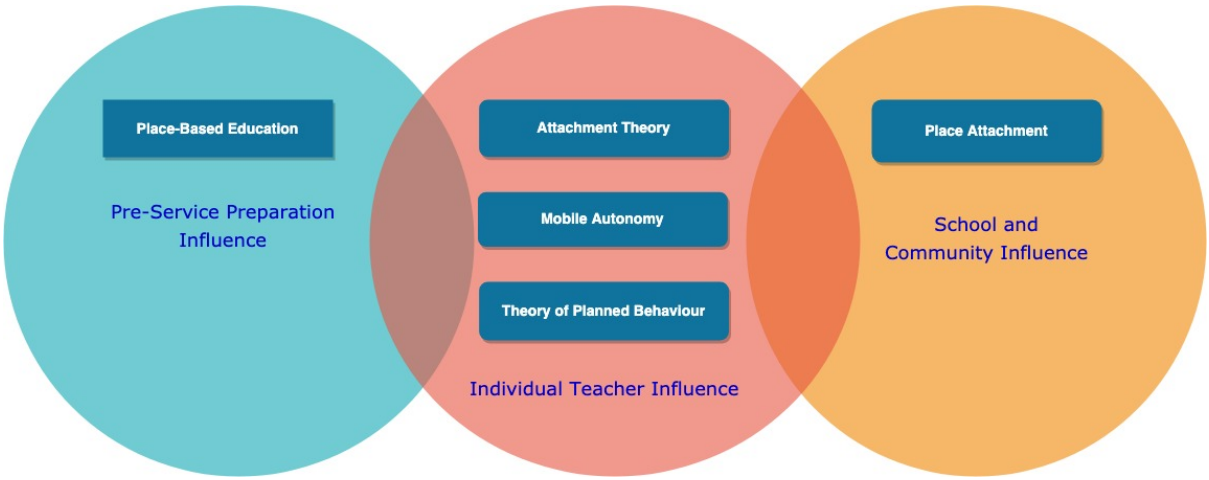

Figure 2.1. The connected theoretical influences for attracting teachers to, and retaining teachers in, remote communities.

2.3.1 Place-Based Education

Corbett (2010b) described how current practices of teaching and teacher education focuses on psychology or brain-based learning. He highlighted that psychological models of learning are inadequate for disadvantaged communities. He proposed that to understand the social contexts of students, it is important to embrace social theory. Understanding 'who' is being taught is not just understanding what is happening inside their head, but understanding their social experiences (Corbett, 2010b). Corbett (2010b) noted, that for teachers to know how to teach, they must furthermore know about where they are teaching, and know about the experiences of those being taught. In this, he encouraged teachers to be anthropologists, to seek to understand, rather than to instruct, to immerse themselves into the culture of place. Corbett (2010b) included examples of cultural immersion: knowing and understanding the history, the exercise of power, resource distribution, the demographic dynamics that influence the social life, and how the community historically experienced schooling. This is place-based education. Place-based education, is another framework used in the analysis of attracting teachers to, and retaining teachers in remote communities in this study. The Rural Schools and Community Trust (as cited in Bartholomaeus, 2006, p. 482) defined place-based education as:

> … learning that is rooted in what is local - the unique history, environment, culture, economy, literature, and art of a particular place. The community provides the context for learning, student work focuses on community needs and interests, and community members serve as resources and partners in every aspect of teaching and learning.

Simplified, the aim of place-based education is to '… ground learning in local phenomena and students' lived experiences" (Smith, 2002, p. 586). White et al. (2008) stated that place-based pedagogies enabled connections to place, people, culture, and concerns that were meaningful and relevant to students. Place-based education focuses on the lived experience of

place, puts 'place' in context, as well as providing a connection between culture and the environment (Gruenewald & Smith, 2014). Place-based education requires teachers to "… intentionally examine their personal histories …" and to focus on "… the nuances of their own cultural contexts and consider how they might be brought into dialogue with the cultural contexts of students with whom they will be working" (Azano & Stewart, 2015, p. 2). Place-based education enables students to recognise the value of their community, and the community benefits from the contributions of the students (Smith, 2002). Bartholomaeus (2006) stated, "Place based education, or place conscious education, enables schools and students to respond positively to lives of the community where they are situated" (p. 487). She further commented that place-based education enables higher academic achievement as well as students appreciating the place where they live. Place-based education as used in this study draws on all of the definitions and conceptualisations as presented in this section, as a means of analysing the provided data.

2.3.2 Attachment Theory

Bowlby's attachment theory (1958, 1960, 1961 as cited in Holmes (1993)) recognised the development of attachments formed "from the cradle to the grave" (as cited in Simpson & Rholes, 2015, p. 1). The theory understands attachment as an emotional bond (Hazan & Shaver, 1994) with three defining features and functions: closeness (proximity seeking), comfort (safe haven), and security (secure base) (Doherty & Feeney, 2004; Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Attachment theory includes three stages of disruption to the attachment: protest, despair, and emotional detachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Weiss (1994) explained attachment theory as being about, "…a critically important bonding system, how it functions, and what happens when it is interrupted" (p. 67). On average, the process of attachment formation takes 2–3 years (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Attachment theory has evolved over time

and has extended from Bowlby's original concept of attachment between infants and their primary caregivers, to include attachments formed through adolescence, and during the adult years, such as those formed with partners, parents, children siblings, and friends (Doherty & Feeney, 2004). Doherty and Feeney (2004) noted that throughout adult life, attachments to parents continue in a modified format based on parents having less and less input in the daily lives of their adult children, whilst during adolescence and early adulthood, attachments to friends gradually replace attachments to parents. Doherty and Feeney (2004) stated that longer lasting friendships were more indicative of attachments, particularly where the friendships have spanned several decades for older adults. However, Weiss (1994) reported very few friendships are relationships of attachment based on the absence of separation distress when the friend is not accessible. Weiss (1994) noted the common features between infant/child attachment and adult attachment are: the attachment involves emotional bonding, not having a conscious control of feelings, under conditions of threat, proximity to the attachment figure is sought, and there is a reaction to the loss of the attachment figure, whether this is a result of death or voluntary/involuntary separation.

Attachment theory has been advocated as relevant to relationships and processes in organisational research (Paetzold, 2015; Richards & Schat, 2011). Attachment theory explains how individuals utilise internal and social resources to respond to demands and adversity they experience at work (Richards & Schat, 2011). According to Richards and Schat (2011) it can also explain how individuals regulate emotions, seek support and exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour. Hazan and Shaver (1990) equated adult work to childhood play and exploration, and Game (2008) equated employee-supervisor relationships to parent-child relationships. The employee-supervisor relationship provides the three functions and features of attachment theory: proximity seeking in times of need, a safe haven

for obtaining social support, and a safe base to explore and to learn (Game, 2008; Paetzold, 2015).

This study adopted two components of the attachment theory applied to the adult years in the analysis of attracting teachers to, and retaining them in, remote communities, The first focused on the findings of Doherty and Feeney (2004) where attachments to parents continue in a modified format and friends replace attachments to parents. The second component focuses on attachment within organisations, in particular the employee-supervisor relationships as described by Game (2008) and Paetzold (2015).

2.3.3 Mobile Autonomy

Mobile autonomy is a combination of three separate existing concepts: the neoliberal subject, autonomy, and the freedom of mobility. Whether choosing to teach in a remote location, choosing not to teach in one, choosing to leave a remote community, or choosing to stay, teachers demonstrate characteristics of neoliberalism, autonomy, and mobility and when combined, mobile autonomy ensues.

Verdouw (2017) identified characteristics of neoliberal subjects that included: being rational, calculating, and self-regulating. They identified self-responsibility and initiative as signs of success. Furthermore, neoliberal subjects are: autonomous, independent and competitive. Verdouw (2017) further identified neoliberal subjects as future orientated, aiming for financial self-reliance, independence, and security, with tendencies to be materialistic, valuing money (ownership), comfort, leisure (travel) and success. Citizenship is interpreted as self-care, and only take responsibility for only a small social group, mainly consisting of close family and friends (Verdouw, 2017).

Autonomy, as defined by Dryden (2018) and Christman (2015), complements the characteristics of the neoliberal subject as identified by Verdouw (2017). Dryden (2018)

defined autonomy as an "individual's capacity for self-determination or self-governance" (para. 1) and Christman (2015) defined it as an individual being his/her own person who is directed by his/her own "…considerations, desires, conditions, and characteristics…" (para. 2). Dryden defined personal autonomy as "..the capacity to decide for oneself and pursue a course of action in one's life, often regardless of any particular moral content" (para. 1). Buss and Westlund (2015) narrowed personal autonomy to an individual making up his/her own mind.

To have mobility is part of modern life (Freudendal-Pedersen, 2009; Gustafson, 2014). According to Freudendal-Pedersen (2009), a large part of identity is having the ability to move from place to place, between old and new communities because this provides an increased sense of freedom (Freudendal-Pedersen, 2009). People move to new neighbourhoods, towns, countries and continents in search of better opportunities in life (Gustafson, 2014). Corbett (2013a) stated that mobility is a key component in the formation of "…personal, social, cultural and economic capital" (p. 275). In line with the characteristics of the neoliberal subject and definitions of autonomy, Freudendal-Pedersen (2009) stated the choice and responsibility for mobility have become individualised. Using the combined concepts of neoliberal subject, autonomy, and the freedom of mobility, mobile autonomy is used in this study in the analysis of attracting teachers to and retaining them in remote communities.

2.3.4 The Theory of Planned Behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was a refinement of the theory of reasoned action (TRA) and was developed in the 1980s by Icek Ajzen (Boslaugh, 2013). Both theories (TPB and TRA) aim to predict and understand the relationship between human behaviour and their motivation to perform behaviours (Boslaugh, 2013). According to TRA individuals have

complete control over whether they perform behaviours, whereas, TPB allows for internal or external factors, such as, opportunity, skill, time, money, and/or the cooperation of others (actual behaviour control), to influence the outcome of the planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991, 2012; Boslaugh, 2013). TPB asserts that whether or not a behaviour engaged in is based on three independent factors: attitude towards the behaviour including self-assessment of the behaviour, the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour, and the perceived level of ability to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991, 2012). The social pressure perceived by the individual comes from those important to that individual, such as family, friends, and work colleagues (Boslaugh, 2013). Ajzen (1991) stated that the greater the intention to perform the behaviour the more likely the behaviour will be enacted. The more positive the attitude towards the behaviour, and the greater the perceived control, the more likely the behaviour would be enacted (Boslaugh, 2013). Boslaugh (2013) summed this up stating, behavioural beliefs are the subjective beliefs of the individual in determining whether or not the planned behaviour will produce the expected outcome. TPB is used in this study rather than TRA because internal or external factors need to be considered as influential factors on the behaviour of choosing to teach in a remote community, choosing to leave the communities, or choosing to remain beyond an initial appointment.

2.3.5 Place Attachment

Another framework used in the analysis of attracting teachers to the remote communities in this study, and retaining them there, is place attachment. There are many interpretations of place attachment as acknowledged by researchers such as Anton and Lawrence (2014), Brown, Raymond, and Corcoran (2015) and Ramkissoon and Mavondo (2015), with some studies linking it to other concepts such as: place dependence, place identity, social bonding, community attachment, and rootedness, depending on the

investigation (e.g., Anton & Lawrence, 2014; Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant, 2004; Ramkissoon & Mavondo, 2015). Simplified definitions of place attachment have been provided by Anton and Lawrence (2014) who defined it as "bonds to a physical place" (p. 452). Brown et al. (2015) described it as, "… how strongly people feel a sense of connection to a particular place …" (p. 42) and Scannell and Gifford (2010) defined it as "… the bonding that occurs between individuals and their meaningful environments" (p, 1). Rather than defining place attachment, Ramkissoon and Mavondo (2015) stated that place attachment reflected the intensity of the bond between people and locales based on dependence, identity and social bonding. They also noted the emotional side of place attachment referred to in the literature, identifying this as 'place affect'. Kyle et al. (2004) identified three components of place attachment: affect (emotional attachment), cognition (thoughts, knowledge, beliefs related to place), and practice (behaviours and activities that occur in the place). Brown et al. (2015) identified three similar components of place attachment: the emotional and physical bond between individuals and the geographical locale (i.e., Kyle et al.'s (2004) affect), the connections between people (i.e., Kyle et al.'s (2004) practice), and the natural setting as influential on place attachment.

Supporting Brown et al.'s (2015) recognition of the three strands, Jean (2016) stated place attachment included neighbourhood attachment. She noted neighbourhood attachment influenced social solidarity, local networks, and community participation. She further added that the level of neighbourhood attachment can influence the desire to stay or leave. Pretty, Chipuer, and Bramston (2003) discussed sense of community as being included in place attachment, where Pretty et al. (2003) explained sense of community as the extent to which a person feels supported and a sense of belonging. They stated that when a person feels they belong to an identified community there is reciprocation of resource sharing. Raymond, Brown, and Weber (2010) noted that the role of the community is important in the formation

of place attachment because the community influences the feelings of "… community attachment, belongingness, rootedness and familiarity" (p. 423). They also found that individual connections to local social networks and the interactions within them played a vital role. Fox and Wilson (2015) identified four dimensions that characterise social networks; strength – the level of interaction there is between and individual and others, perceived value – the perception of support, formality – either formal support provided by structured system supports, or informal or unplanned support, and temporality – how the relationships within the network are developed and then used over time. Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) found that bonding or social attachments, were stronger than rootedness or physical attachment in the formation of place attachment. They also noted that house attachment closely linked to social attachment. Lewicka (2010) noted a relationship between place attachment and the type of housing, size of the building, and upkeep and personalisation of the surrounding district. From comparing a number of studies, she further noted that building size and type of housing was second highest predictor of place attachment after community connections. This might be because as Lewicka (2010) noted, instruments used to measure place attachment were often biased towards neighbourhoods, and therefore, measured attachment to neighbourhoods. She also noted that the concept of 'home' was individualised and subjective and therefore identifying common factors was difficult. Kasarpa and Janowitz (1974) found that population size was not as much as a predictor of place attachment as the social connectedness that developed between people during the time of residency.

Place attachment has been identified as positive for people and the locale because it provides security, identity, and a sense of pride and well being for people, and cohesion and stability for the locale (Jean, 2016). In this study, a combination of the definitions found in the literature are used to describe place attachment as experienced by some teachers in remote communities.

2.4 Difficulties Attracting Teachers

Attracting and retaining experienced teachers in isolated and remote schools is not only a continuing problem for Australian education authorities (Lyons, 2009) but is an ongoing international issue (Sharplin, 2002). The difficulty of attracting teachers to remote communities is a significant problem as it affects the social aspects of the community as well as the community's sustainability (Herrington & Herrington, 2001). This section focuses on issues of attracting teachers nationally and internationally to remote locations. There are two sub-sections, the first, Section 2.4.1, focuses on additional costs (compared to the normal costs of living) encountered by teachers living and working in remote locations and the second, Section 2.4.2, discusses attracting principals, and the importance of the role in remote locations.

In 1904, a New South Wales inquiry into educational issues, raised concerns in regard to country teachers. The issue was focused on teachers having "... the hope of ultimate appointment to a city school …" and how these hopes "… tend to lessen the teacher's interest in the education of the rural child" (as cited in Green & Reid, 2012, p. 367). Over a century later the majority of teachers continue to aspire to teach in urban schools and the difficulty of attracting teachers to remote communities continues to be a focus of research (e.g. Arnold et al., 2005; Barley, 2009; Frid et al., 2008; Hardre, 2009; Kelly & Fogarty, 2015; Lonsdale & Ingvarson, 2003; Reid et al, 2012; Roberts, 2004). Difficulties for teachers in remote schools include, but are not limited to: travel costs, a higher cost of living, accommodation, beginning teachers being allocated the difficult classes other teachers avoid, and with little or no mentoring, PD, or classroom support (Herrington & Herrington, 2001).

Similarly, Lonsdale and Ingvarson (2003) found that in New Zealand, concerns about things such as salaries, work conditions, the school authority, curriculum changes, and demands on teachers, contributed further to the challenges of teacher attraction. O'Callaghan

(2015) found the requirement to drive long distances, lack of suitable housing, and lack of partner employment opportunities added further difficulties for staffing rural New Zealand schools. In addition, New Zealand has experienced severe teacher shortages generally, due to retirements and resignations with too few graduates to replace them (Lonsdale & Ingvarson, 2003). Between 2001 and 2002, 26% of teachers who resigned were beginning teachers (Lonsdale & Ingvarson, 2003). Some advertised teaching positions in New Zealand remain unfilled (Franks, 2004; O'Callaghan, 2015) and are re-advertised with some principal positions being filled by graduate or second year teachers (Franks, 2004).

Barley (2009) noted that the challenges faced by teachers in rural/remote American schools included: professional isolation, low salaries, multiple grade or subject teaching placements, and a lack of familiarity with schools and communities. These challenges serve as deterrents for teachers choosing to teach in rural/remote schools. Barley (2009) stated that teachers recruited to rural/remote schools need to be prepared for the conditions of rural/remote schools and the communities they serve. Furthermore, she noted the difficulty rural schools face in filling vacant positions compared to urban schools. This resulted in rural schools being more likely to cancel courses compared to urban schools.

Canada has a provincial rather than national system of education in which each province controls its own education system. According to Mulcahy (2009), Newfoundland and Labrador is the most rural of the provinces in Canada, with the majority of the population living in rural areas. The majority of the 300 Newfoundland and Labrador schools are situated in small rural areas. They are mostly K-12 schools that rely on combined classes and distance education. Almost 25% of Newfoundland and Labrador schools having fewer than 100 students and have difficulty attracting and retaining teachers (Mulcahy, 2009). It is especially difficult for these schools to attract maths, science and foreign language teachers (Mulcahy, 2009).

2.4.1 Additional Costs in Remote Locations

Additional costs for living and working in remote locations include personal and financial costs. Kline, White, and Lock (2013) found the personal cost of moving away from family prevented PSTs from accepting a practicum in a remote location, (Rural Education Forum Australia, 2005) and found difficulties managing family responsibilities such as children or aged parents requiring support as other personal costs. These costs are the same for beginning teachers. PSTs with such responsibilities, who accept a remote practicum, need to have access to extra resources to provide for their dependents (Rural Education Forum Australia, 2005). Other personal costs may relate to sporting or local leadership obligations which they would have to put off or find replacements if they take up a country placement (Rural Education Forum Australia, 2005).

Kline et al. (2013) identified financial costs as being a deterrent for attracting teachers and preservice teachers. Financial costs include, but are not limited to: travel, accommodation (renting in the remote location as well as maintaining their home base), and the extra day-to-day living costs. As Stokes et al. (1999), Herrington and Herrington (2001) and Baills et al. (2002) found, the cost of living in remote communities is usually higher than the cost of living in urban and metropolitan areas. Additional to this, a number of PSTs have part-time employment and if they accept a remote practicum they either miss out on the income or possibly lose their job (Rural Education Forum Australia, 2005). Travel costs include those involved in travelling to regional business centres, and higher fuel prices in remote areas compared to urban locations (Baills et al., 2002; Herrington & Herrington, 2001). When all the costs are considered together, the allowances provided to teachers may not be enough to attract beginning or experienced teachers (Baills et al., 2002). As Sharplin (2002) noted, accepting appointments in remote locations is more than a professional decision.

Franks (2004) noted that in 2003 between 400 and 500 New Zealand rural schools were targeted for potential closure. He linked the uncertainty of future operation of school with the issue of attracting teachers and principals. Franks (2004) stated that it costs more, both financially and personally, to live in rural New Zealand. According to Franks (2004) the main personal cost for teachers in New Zealand, was moving away from family and friends.

Although some rural districts in the USA make adjustments for the additional cost of living, wages are lower than for teachers in non-rural areas (Hardre, 2009). One reason for which teachers in rural schools are paid less than those in non-rural areas was explained by the fact that educational revenue is gained through local property tax (Roscigno & Crowley, 2001). Roscigno and Crowley (2001) stated that schools in rural/remote locations have access to less tax revenue because of lower property taxes. Low tax revenue impacted on the efforts of rural schools to attract and retain teachers because they were not able to provide compensation to teachers (Monk, 2007). Haar (2007) found teachers were more likely to leave if their salary was less than they could earn elsewhere.

2.4.2 Attracting Principals

Not only is attracting teachers an issue in some locations, it is also difficult to attract principals (Halsey, 2018; Lock, Budgen, & Lunay, 2012a). Lock et al. (2012a) found that principals who went to remote locations had been personally encouraged or invited to apply, had previous experience of teaching in remote locations, approached the appointment as a personal challenge, and/or wanted to make a difference. The difficulties of attracting principals to remote areas were summed up by Novak, Green and Gottschall (as cited in Lock et al., 2012a, p. 67). They identified that a principalship in remote schools required:

> Leadership in rural and remote settings is multifaceted, diverse, and place-conscious. The needs and priorities of rural and remote students, their parents and communities

> in general require skilled and knowledgeable leaders who are aware of their own situatedness, their positionality and, are receptive to the distinctive demands of their own school community, while aware of their role in mediating relationships with outside and beyond - the 'global'.

According to Franks (2004), there were very few financial incentives to encourage principals to move to rural areas.

2.5 Difficulties Retaining Teachers

The difficulties of retaining teachers in difficult to staff areas as well as remote and isolated areas has been recognised internationally and nationally. This section presents the situations in different countries, as well some locations within those countries, where difficulties retaining teachers have been identified.

Burleigh (2015) recognised that teacher retention in First Nation schools in Canada was an issue that needed attention. She also noted that the First Nation schools were federally funded but received less funding each year adding to teacher retention problems. First Nation schools had a 30-50% teacher turnover rate with some schools having 100% actual teacher turnover (Burleigh, 2015). Reasons Burleigh (2015) provided for retention issues, in Canada included: salary inconsistency, isolation, lack of support and resources, and the allure of teaching in urban centres. She also found that the aspiration to teach in an urban location influenced teachers to leave remote locations.

In New Zealand, Franks (2004) found that at times parents, the community, and school boards in rural communities undermine principals and teachers with high expectations. He explained that school operation, expectations concerning how staff should act, and their level of community involvement, were all areas where judgements were made by parents, community members, and school board members, who may not understand the

system or role changes over time. Franks (2004) stated that when communities turned against teaching staff, community members were merciless and unreasonable, often resulting in the teacher or principal resigning. Principals and teachers in small communities are constantly under the watchful eye of the community and must always be vigilant of what they say and do (Franks, 2004). O'Callaghan (2015) found little had changed regarding communities owning the principal, with the distinction between professional and personal lives becoming obscure. Edmonds (2016) also highlighted the high expectations communities place on principals but he likewise mentioned the lack of education department support provided to them, particularly those in rural and small schools. In New Zealand as rural communities have dwindled in population, retaining teachers has become more difficult (Franks, 2004).

Franks (2004) and O'Callaghan (2015) noted PD is expensive for teachers in remote communities due to travel expenses resulting in rural schools limiting attendance. O'Callaghan (2015) reported that although PD was available on-line, Internet access in rural locations was not reliable. Franks (2004) described the inadequate external support from educational service providers for rural schools, as an element of discrimination.

In 2013, one third of teachers in the USA were in their first 5 years of teaching (DeMonte, 2013). Irinaga-Bistolas et al. (2007) attributed this to combinations of factors that produce high levels of stress and burnout, leading to teachers leaving. Haar (2007) found that working conditions were more important to experienced teachers than beginning teachers and Barley (2009) suggested more needed to be known about the reasons for which teachers leave rural areas.

In their study of teacher mobility in British Columbia, Murphy and Angelski (1996-97) found that teachers left because of geographic isolation, weather conditions, distance from urban communities and family, and inadequate shopping facilities. According to Barley (2009) and Herrington and Herrington (2001) teachers also leave remote areas to be closer to

family and friends. Factors under the control of administrators such as class size and salary seemed not to influence decisions. Conversely, teachers stayed because of their principal, spousal or partner employment, and/or satisfaction with the lifestyle (Murphy & Angelski, 1996-97). The overall finding of the Canadian research was that teachers need to find life in rural communities appealing. Haar (2007) found teachers were more likely to leave if they were not included in decision-making processes, and there was a lack of access to mentors.

Although attracting teachers to remote areas is crucial, it is not enough (Stokes et al., 1999). Stokes et al. (1999) stressed that it is essential to retain teachers in remote areas in order to provide a stable education for students. Additionally, they noted however, that it is just as difficult to retain teachers as it is to encourage teachers to accept remote appointments. In remote communities where teacher retention is low, the quality of the curriculum as well as the implementation is greatly impacted from constant teacher turnover (Brasche & Harrington, 2012).

In 2002, the New South Wales Teachers Federation recognised that retaining teachers beyond the minimum time required had a positive effect on the community, the school, and the education of the students (Wallace & Boylan, 2007). Vinson (2002) reported that teachers who remained in remote communities contribute significantly to the local social capital through their formal and informal contribution to committees, events and networks. Longer staying teachers were known for becoming a part of the community, and forming a connection with the community. Staying for the enjoyment of the lifestyle aligns with the findings of Lock, Budgen, and Lunay (2012b). They found that teachers liked living in remote communities because they enjoyed the lifestyle. Conversely, Baills et al. (2002) noted that the high rate of teachers transferring in and out of remote communities often leave the community questioning the importance of education within and for their area. In Australia,

Halsey (2018) reported that there is an on-going belief that "… the country is a good place for a teacher to start their career but not devote their career to" (p. 38).

There are a number of specific factors identified as reasons for which teachers leave remote areas. Morrison (2013) found combinations of factors produced high levels of distress, which lead to teachers leaving. Examples of these and other factors are discussed in the following sections.

2.5.1 Additional Costs in Remote Locations

A number of additional costs incurred by teachers in rural areas compared to those in urban areas have been identified as contributing to teachers not remaining in remote locations. As stated in Section 2.4.1, additional costs include personal costs and financial costs. Personal costs associated with such things as distance from the family, personal isolation, professional isolation, social isolation, cultural isolation, and financial costs have been identified as contributing factors to teachers not remaining in the areas (Baills et al., 2002; Herrington & Herrington, 2001; Irinaga-Bistolas et al., 2007; Lowe, 2006). Additional financial costs were also recognised by Lowe (2006) Griffith (2003), Roberts (2004) and Stokes et al. (1999). Public transport is limited or non-existent (Griffith, 2003) in remote locations and fuel costs are higher, adding to the cost of travel (Griffith, 2003; Roberts, 2004). Roberts (2004) found the cost of telephone and food, were higher in remote areas compared to urban centres. Access to medical services in remote communities is limited and in some cases travelling to and from specialist medical appointments can take 2-3 days, thereby contributing to costs.

In Section 2.4.1, the possibility of maintaining two houses was recognised as a deterrent for attracting teachers. Lowe (2006) identified the lack of suitable accommodation as a contributing factor for teachers not remaining in rural/remote communities. Some rural

communities lack suitable housing requiring teachers to live elsewhere and commute considerable distances each day. Lowe (2006) found teachers who lived in or near the community where their school was, were less likely to leave the school than were teachers who commuted.

Rural and remote areas tend to be staffed by beginning teachers who are then distanced from educational and social support systems. Beginning teachers accepting appointments in remote communities can find themselves in an environment where they are highly visible and possibly known by far more people than they know. Beginning teachers in remote areas do not have the opportunity to make mistakes without consequence in ways that beginning teachers in larger centres who generally became anonymous after hours do (Halsey, 2005, 2006).

By leaving family and friends, teachers leave their personal network of support which comes at a personal emotional cost (Sharplin, 2002). Herrington and Herrington (2001) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) found the combination of living away from personal and professional networks could contribute to emotional effects of professional and personal isolation.

When new inexperienced teachers arrive in a remote community they are often scrutinised by the local population, adding pressure on the teachers to conform to certain social standards (Baills et al., 2002). Some community members may make assumptions about the intentions of new teachers based on previous experiences with other young and inexperienced teachers (Baills et al., 2002).

The Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) found that remote communities had expectations of teachers in their communities to be enthusiastic, well educated in the possession of a range of teaching skills, being unwilling to live in and relate to the community, understand the community's values, and be able to integrate the community's

interests into their teaching program. Likewise, the Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) found that teachers were expected to participate in local organisations and contribute to the community. They were expected to be role models and to maintain appropriate professional and social standards of behaviour. However, because the majority of the teachers were young and relatively inexperienced, and likely to have come from an urban environment, as well as to have undergone initial teacher education in an urban environment, meeting such expectations was quite difficult. To some degree these teachers were being set up by the community to fail. In a survey undertaken by Stokes et al. (1999) a number of parents and teachers commented, "Do not send first year out teachers to isolated and remote locations" (p. 48) because they recognised the unfamiliarity of a rural and remote lifestyle to beginning teachers.

Furthermore, community members and teachers may be wary of each other and simultaneously be sensitive to the reactions of the other, which may limit interactions (Baills et al., 2002). In some communities, this can go further than wariness. Higgins (1993) (as cited by Baills et al., 2002) for example, found that in some remote regions, community members were reluctant to befriend teachers, because of the limited time for which teachers remained in the communities. The reason some community members were reluctant to befriend teachers was due to feeling threatened by teachers' 'educated' knowledge (Baills et al., 2002). Higgins (1993) (as cited in Baills et al., 2002) found that this reluctance contributed to some teachers suffering social isolation, which in turn influenced their decision to transfer out of the community. Later studies by Herrington and Herrington (2001) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) found social isolation continued to be a contributing factor for teachers not remaining in remote areas. Sharplin (2002) found some teachers who did not enjoy the lifestyle of living in remote areas were concerned that choosing to leave would be detrimental to their chances of obtaining future jobs.

In Australia, the Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) recognised that professional demands placed on teachers in remote locations and the extent of professional support available during their tenure influenced the length of time for which teachers remained. The Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) also noted that participating in an induction into living and teaching in the community influenced some teachers' decisions to stay or leave. This was validated by Herrington and Herrington (2001) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) who found that reasons for which some teachers are not retained in remote locations relate to the lack of administrative, system and situational supports and, consequently, teachers feeling professionally isolated. Sullivan and Johnson (2012) explained how such support is limited due to system structures. Adding to the professional concerns, Sullivan and Johnson (2012) found teachers in remote regions have a fear of being professionally left behind due to this lack of PD opportunities and limited professional support.

Attending PD in distant centres produces its own difficulties, including the travel time required to attend the sessions, and additional costs of attendance (e.g. registration for the course, fuel and accommodation), which are not always covered by school-based budgets (Herrington & Herrington, 2001; Stokes et al., 1999; Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). In addition, a lack of relief (substitute) teachers to cover classes to enable classroom teachers to attend PD, as well as relief to cover classes for teachers who are sick or on other leave, contributed to the difficulties of retaining teachers in remote locations (Stokes et al., 1999). Vinson (2002) reported that when teachers were not retained, temporary teachers. principals or deputy principals would cover the staffing gaps to avoid losing faith with school communities. Although having principals and deputy principals taking on a teaching load to fill the teaching gaps demonstrates their dedication, it impacts on their ability to undertake their primary role of leading the teaching and learning (Halsey, 2018; Vinson, 2002). A

decade after Stokes et al. (1999) found the lack of access to relief teachers was a contributing factor for remote locations not being able to retain teachers, Sullivan and Johnson (2012) found these factors still existed.

The lack of mentoring support and critical feedback is another deterrent for teachers remaining in remote areas (Herrington & Herrington, 2001; Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). Sullivan and Johnson (2012) suggested that principals and the other teachers in remote locations are new to their respective roles and hence less able to act as mentors as they are learning about their role (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). The majority of teachers in remote schools are beginning teachers (Roberts, 2004) meaning there are few experienced teachers to mentor beginning teachers (McConaghy et al., 2006; Sharplin, 2002). Sullivan and Johnson (2012) found in some remote Australian schools there is a lack of teaching resources within schools.

The Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) found that teachers were concerned about their prospects for future promotion or opportunity to transfer to a preferred location if they remained too long in a remote appointment. More than 20 years later these concerns have not changed. As Herrington and Herrington (2001) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) found, some teachers feel that appointments in rural and remote areas place restrictions on their career prospects because small schools do not offer promotional opportunities. Some teachers believe that returning to the city after completing a remote service is difficult (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). Teachers in remote areas feel they are 'out of touch' with the latest educational directions and issues (Stokes et al., 1999; Sullivan & Johnson, 2012).

Community related professional challenges that impact on teachers remaining in remote locations are specific to the location (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). In some remote areas students live in transient families, which creates challenges for consistent programming and consistency in behaviour management (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). Baills et al. (2002)

recognised that in some remote communities there is a lack of student support in the home. Additionally, Stokes et al. (1999) found where teachers relocated away from their partner with the partner remaining in their own employment, further costs resulted financially and in time, due to travelling to visit their partners. Alternatively, if the partner chose to leave their employment, this added a further financial burden due to having only one income for some time.

2.5.2 Principal's Role in Retaining Teachers

Principals in remote locations should recognise that a quality environment for teaching and learning is essential for attracting and retaining teachers in their schools (Lowe, 2006). Lowe (2006) suggested principals need to accept that beginning teachers are not "finished products" (p. 28). They need to promote collegiality because teachers do a better job when they are connected with other teachers (Haar, 2007; Lowe, 2006; Watkins, 2005). Similarly, Sullivan and Johnson (2012) suggested the principal foster support networks for beginning teachers to help them to feel connected and professionally supported.

Lock et al. (2012b) found that principals who encouraged their teachers to form community connections, or who provided information about community events, and in some cases explicitly provided their teachers with introductions into the community, supported the retention of those teachers. Similarly, Hardre (2009) found teachers learn to accept the school, students and families if they are exposed to them in a positive manner that promotes the acceptance of each other.

Lock et al. (2012b) found that teachers in remote communities were more likely to stay if the principal showed genuine interest in them. According to White et al. (2009) school leadership was the most important influence in retaining teachers.

2.5.3 Retaining Principals

Halsey (2018) noted that retaining principals in remote schools was a continuing challenge. Lock et al. (2012a) found that principals shared similar views to teachers about remaining in remote communities. The lack of privacy and constantly being 'on call' was another concern raised by principals. Principals have to be vigilant in the community because their relationship with the community is important. Maintaining a separation between personal and professional life in a small community was identified by some principals as difficult (Graham, Miller, & Paterson, 2009; Lock et al., 2012a) and principals can find themselves unable to discuss community and professional issues with other staff (Lock et al., 2012a). The constant turnover of teachers and difficulties attracting suitable teachers, providing PD for beginning teachers, providing support for high needs students, and developing and sustaining mentoring relationships with other principals, all contribute to principals choosing to leave remote areas (Graham et al., 2009; Lock et al., 2012a). Lock et al. (2012a) found that at times, principals were provided with reactive support when problems manifested, rather than being provided with proactive PD. Additional reasons provided for leaving remote areas included exhaustion and stress (student behaviour was named up as a contributing factor), staff conflict (exacerbating the sense of isolation), and isolation from family and friends (Lock et al., 2012a). Wallin and Newton (2014) found that principals who stayed in remote Canadian communities respected the local history and culture and recognised that building relationships with the parents and community members facilitated the work they undertook in their schools.

2.6 Pre-Service Teachers (PSTs)

This section discusses the role of universities in the attraction of teachers to remote areas, their retention, and the opportunities provided to pre-service teachers (PSTs) to live

and work in remote communities during their teacher education courses. Suggestions from the literature for teacher education course inclusions are provided in Section 2.8.2.

There has been a great deal of research in Australia and internationally that provides evidence that the majority of teacher education courses do not cater for PSTs teaching and living in rural/remote locations (e.g., Baills et al., 2002; Boylan, 2004; Hudson & Hudson, 2008; Trinidad et al., 2011; Yarrow, Herschell, & Millwater, 1999). Simultaneously, the research highlights the vital role universities have in providing first hand experiences of teaching and living in remote locations to PSTs as a means of influencing the attraction of teachers to remote areas and retaining them in these communities (Baills et al., 2002; Boylan, 2004; Hudson & Hudson, 2008). However, many PST education courses do not adequately provide teachers with the skills or knowledge required to teach and live in remote locations (Halsey, 2005; Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 2000a; Lock, 2008; Sharplin, 2002). In order for universities to prepare PSTs adequately and ensure they gain the knowledge and skills required for working in a remote community, it is important that universities and schools work together (Lock, 2008; Roberts, 2004).

In the USA, Yarrow, Ballantyne, Hansford, Herschell, and Millwater (1999) and Irinaga-Bistolas et al. (2007) found that there is insufficient attention to teaching and living in remote communities during PST education. Traditionally teacher education in the USA is provided through colleges and universities (DeMonte, 2013). Across the USA initial teacher education involves at least 16 different bodies that oversee the standards, accreditation, program content, and program approval (DeMonte, 2013). Barley (2009) identified 17 mid-continent teacher education institutions that purported to prepare teachers to work in rural schools but only nine provided three or more aspects of a rural program. According to Barley (2009) a rural program for PSTs includes courses that focus on rural conditions, provide qualifications to teach in two or more subject areas, offer practical experience in rural

schools, provide access to coursework online, and recruit PSTs from rural areas. Even though the nine institutions all served communities that were "intensely rural" (p. 14), only four recruited PSTs from rural areas (Barley, 2009). Wallin and Newton (2014) noted that in universities that did offer a course on rural education, these courses were usually elective rather than an integral part of the course.

Studies of teacher education programs in Australia (e.g. Bailles et al., 2002; Downes & Roberts, 2018) found a similar situation to that in the USA. Specifically, there is very little attention paid to teaching and living in remote communities during PST education. Studies have revealed that PSTs are not prepared for the lifestyle of remote communities. According to the Rural Education Forum Australia (REFA) a number of universities provide a metro-centric teacher education model which is inappropriate for rural and remote teaching (REFA, 2005). PSTs who are uninformed about remote teaching rely on stereotypes of remote living and teaching (Sharplin, 2002). Similarly Hudson and Hudson (2008) found that recognising PSTs' perceptions of remote communities and subsequently motivating them to accept a remote teaching position, is the first step towards the solution. Additionally, Downes and Roberts (2018) noted that teachers' abilities to adjust to teaching in remote communities are influenced by their perceptions. REFA (2005) found that no Australian university required PSTs to include a practicum in a remote community as part of their graduation requirements. This was largely due to the inability of the universities to provide supervision and assessment support in remote contexts, as well as the financial costs involved in remote placements. Although compulsory rural/remote pre-service practicums are not required by any Australian university, many universities offer practicums in remote areas as an option, as well as pre-service modules that provide information about teaching in remote areas (Herrington & Herrington, 2001). Bailles et al. (2002) found that providing non-compulsory opportunities to participate in remote education opportunities means that a large percentage of PSTs decline

the opportunity to prepare for a future teaching position in such a placement. They, therefore, do not have personal experience to draw on to make a decision about accepting an appointment in a remote location (Sharplin, 2002). Reasons for which PSTs decline such opportunities include: not having access to more experienced teachers for mentoring support; the additional living costs as well as the inadequate allowances provided to cover the additional costs; and the inadequate provision of accommodation (Baills et al., 2002; Sharplin, 2002).

The difficulty in retaining graduate teachers in remote areas, stems from them not being well prepared for remote teaching (Frid et al., 2008). Teachers who are available to work in remote areas, usually lack experience, are often in their first year, and are not familiar with the life style differences between rural or remote living compared to that of urban living. Stokes et al. (1999) and Harmon (2001) noted teachers unprepared for teaching and living in remote areas can become easily discouraged. Baills et al. (2002) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) stated the differences between rural or remote living compared to that of urban living is immeasurable to the extent that beginning teachers who have not lived in a remote area before may find it difficult to comprehend the environment. Knowledge of life outside of metropolitan areas for some teachers is limited (Trinidad et al., 2011). Wallace and Boylan (2007) found that:

> In Australia, most pre-service teacher education courses *(sic)* are based in the capital cities. The majority of students enrolled in teacher education courses are drawn from metropolitan schools. For these courses and their students, rural schools and their communities are ‘unknown’, ‘to be feared’, ‘to be avoided’ and have little connection with these students’ life experiences. (para. 7)

The Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) found that the extent of preparation for rural teaching prior to the appointment can have an impact on the length of time teachers

remained in a remote appointment. Just over 10 years on, Herrington and Herrington (2001) found the lack of relevant pre-service training was an influencing factor contributing to teachers leaving remote and rural areas.

2.7 Initiatives Implemented to Attract and Retain Teachers

As explained in Section 2.4, attracting and retaining teachers in remote and isolated schools has been an ongoing issue both internationally and nationally. Many initiatives have been implemented to address the various concerns. This section discusses initiatives introduced internationally and nationally to attract teachers to and retain them in remote regions. The first part of the discussion focuses on initiatives implemented internationally, with specific focus on America, Canada and New Zealand. Following this, initiatives implemented in Australia are discussed. The similarities and differences in the implemented initiatives between the Australian states and territories are provided.

The Teach for America (TFA) program was initiated in 1990 to address educational inequities for students in low-income areas (Decker, Mayer, & Glazerman, 2004; 2018) and to address teacher shortages in urban and rural regions (Heilig & Jez, 2010). TFA offers a 5-week intensive training course to seniors and college graduates without a teaching background, and places them in a rural, remote or hard-to-staff urban school for 2 years (Decker et al., 2004; Heilig & Jez, 2010; Schneider, 2014). Heilig and Jez (2010) noted that more than 50% of TFA teachers leave teaching after 2 years and 80% of TFA teachers leave after 3 years. TFA is effective for teacher attraction but not retention. Decker et al. (2004) noted that TFA teachers were placed in schools that recorded high teacher attrition rates. There is evidence that TFA benefits school districts where there are teacher shortages or when the only available teachers are relief (substitute) teachers (Heilig & Jez, 2010) but Decker et al. (2004) acknowledged the practice of using TFA teachers has received criticism

for permitting unlicensed or underprepared teachers into classrooms. The high teacher turnover of TFA teachers has implications not only in terms of the financial cost of continually training these teachers, but also in terms of student outcomes (Heilig & Jez, 2010). Gains in academic achievement have been linked to experienced teachers and low teacher turnover (Heilig & Jez, 2010).

In some rural US areas, communities are encouraged to accept and support teachers as well as their families, and to support the contributions that teachers make to the school and the community (Hardre, 2009). Hardre (2009) found that parent and community support is a critical element for teachers choosing to remain in the schools. In one US state where on average, teachers remain for over 20 years, parent support was provided as the reason for teachers remaining in the communities (Hardre, 2009). Teachers with high levels of parent support and student respect are not likely to want to go anywhere else (Hardre, 2009). Hardre (2009) found that teachers in rural America are paid less than their colleagues in non-rural schools, even after the cost of living is accounted for. Lowe (2006) found that offering financial incentives such as bonuses or increased salary in most rural districts was both successful and popular. In some rural school districts, student loans are paid either in full or partially (Lowe, 2006). Lowe (2006) found that some school districts provide accommodation either free or for a token amount. He also found some districts see this as an advantage while others see it as an issue when dealing with property maintenance, explaining that some of the houses were in various stages of disrepair to the extent that they are not an incentive but a liability.

In Oregon where 37% of school districts are classified as small and/or rural, Irinaga-Bistolas et al. (2007) found that beginning teachers were provided with a formal induction program that included mentoring, on-going PD, and support to expand resources. Irinaga-Bistolas et al. (2007) found that induction programs that included individualised mentoring

and coaching as well as on-going PD have been effective in addressing retention concerns in rural America. They also found that beginning teachers acknowledge the importance of having a colleague available in their school to provide support for getting to know the culture of the community as well as the procedures of the school. Mentoring of new teachers was found to be an effective method for retaining teachers (Watkins, 2005).

Watkins (2005) found that principals have a role in teacher retention. Specifically, if new teachers are consigned to passive observer in decision-making processes they become isolated from discussion and disconnected from school goals. Watkins (2005) found that principals who provided teachers with connections to like-minded colleagues, supported retention rates. According to Watkins (2005), the most crucial role of a principal is the retention and development of new teachers.

Mulcahy (2009) explained that PSTs in Newfoundland and Labrador, undertook a 13-week practicum. At Memorial University, PSTs could opt to do an additional 2 weeks in the more isolated areas of the province. The aim was to provide them with the opportunity to make an informed decision about living and working in remote regions (Mulcahy, 2009).

A private non-profit organisation, Teach for Canada (TFC), a spinoff of Teach for America, was launched in 2015 (Steeves, 2015) to work with remote First Nation schools in Northern Ontario to recruit beginning teachers, prepare them for teaching and retain them for 2 years (Burleigh, 2015; Steeves, 2015). Steeves (2015) noted his concern that TFC did not recognise the value of home grown educators but, rather, promoted teaching as tourism. He continued, stating that, TFC misidentified the problem of teacher attraction versus teacher retention and ignored the facts about why teachers are not retained. Further concern for TFC was the responsibility placed on teachers to compensate for the social and structural inequalities that exist in the communities they serve, and that prompted the intervention by TFC.

In 1999, in New Zealand, the government declared all schools would be staffed by quality teachers. Providing quality teachers was to be achieved by improving PST education, requiring all teachers to undertake ongoing PD, universal registration for all teachers, and development of a staffing formula to include issues of school workloads. An incentive scheme was developed to attract teachers to work in hard to staff schools (*New Zealand: The educational system overview*, 2017).

Mallard (2004) provided details of bonded scholarships awarded to PSTs in New Zealand. The recipient was required to teach after graduation for the same number of years for which they had received the scholarship. Bonded scholarships for early childhood teachers and teachers of Maori and Pasifika language, were available to students from low-income backgrounds. Additionally, a $3000 relocation grant was available to teachers who opted to work in hard to staff schools, and schools that recruited a teacher eligible for the grant received $2500. Due to difficulties in finding teachers for some subjects in hard to staff secondary schools, New Zealand provided an allowance of $2000 to secondary teachers who returned to the hard to staff schools to teach specific subjects. Mallard (2004) also reported other allowances that were available to teachers who worked in schools that had difficulties attracting staff.

An isolation allowance is available to teachers and principals who are employed in hard to staff New Zealand schools (Education New Zealand., 2016). The allowance was paid if teachers lived permanently in those areas, although what living permanently meant was not specified. The areas were identified as those having a population of fewer than 300 and being located 60 - 100 kilometres from a population centre of more than 1500 people. The allowance varied from $299 - $1472 per year (Education New Zealand., 2016).

Another initiative used in New Zealand is the provision of housing in areas where finding housing was difficult (Education New Zealand., 2017). In New Zealand, boards of

trustees manage houses. They find tenants, undertake property inspections, collect the bond and rent (charged at market value), annually review the rent, manage tenancy disputes, and pay rates and insurance. Teachers and principals receive a 25% percent discount on the rent. Housing however, is not a condition of employment, meaning that a house does not have to be supplied.

For a number of decades there have been initiatives for attracting and/or retaining teachers to remote and rural areas implemented throughout Australia. According to Sharplin (2002) the implementation of such strategies and programs to support the attraction and retention of teachers throughout Australia has, however been haphazard. There is very little research focused on the effectiveness of measures aimed at retaining teachers (Herrington & Herrington, 2001).

Australian states such as New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and Tasmania, and the Northern Territory have provisions in place to attract teachers to remote areas. One of these includes specialised pre-service learning experiences (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). In South Australia, Sullivan and Johnson (2012) described preservice teacher scholarships of up to $20,000 being available each year to sponsor practicums in rural schools. Through initiatives such as ‘Beyond the Line’ in New South Wales and ‘Over the Hill Program’ in Queensland, practicum experiences in rural schools have been supported. In Western Australia, the ‘Country Teachers Program’ included incentives such as: guaranteeing employment after graduation, increased starting salaries, and the provision of substantial leave following the appointment, to attract teachers to remote areas. In 2000 the Tasmanian DoE introduced the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools (PEIRS) program, The PEIRS program was introduced to encourage PSTs to undertake their final practicum in participating rural and isolated schools. The program provides support for accommodation and travel for PSTs who are required to relocate in

order to undertake the practicum. The PEIRS program is discussed in more detail in Section 6.3.4. The PEIRS program is promoted by the University of Tasmania (UTAS) on the university's website, however locating the information is quite difficult.

Various Australian states provide incentive schemes for attracting teachers to remote areas and for retaining them there. Stokes et al. (1999) however, found that incentive schemes have worked in attracting teachers to some rural and remote areas but they have not worked in keeping them as most teachers stayed only while the financial incentive was available. They found that although teachers acknowledged the incentives, they were not always seen as adequate in amount or type because of teachers' differing circumstances. For example, some teachers saw permanency as a priority but for those who were already permanent, financial incentives were more important. Some teachers preferred a guaranteed teaching appointments, while others wanted better conditions such as quality housing.

In Tasmania, a 'Partnerships in Teaching Excellence Scholarship' offered 40 places each year to final year students undertaking the Master of Education degree (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). It targeted low socio-economic schools in Tasmania and included more time spent in schools during PST education, permanency at the completion of the degree, $6000, a laptop, and payment of the Higher Education Contributions Scheme debts (Allen, Howells, & Radford, 2013). However, the scholarship created a divide between PSTs selected for the program and those who were not (Allen et al., 2013). The scholarship resulted in additional workload for recipients who spent considerably more time in schools as well as undertaking other required activities, whilst simultaneously completing the same number of courses and university assignments as non-scholarship recipients. These demands affected the quality of application to school and classroom practice (Allen et al., 2013). The scholarship was replaced with the Teacher Intern Placement Program which is explained in Section 6.2.7.

Although most Australian education authorities such as those in the Northern Territory (Northern Territory Government of Australia, 2011), Queensland (Queensland Government, 2014), New South Wales (New South Wales Government, 2014), Western Australia (The Association of Independent Schools of South Australia (AISSA), 2011) and Tasmania (DoE, 2014b) provide an allowance to subsidise relocation costs, Baills et al. (2002) found that the amount is not always sufficient.

When teachers in Western Australia are appointed to a remote location their personal travel costs are provided for them and their family upon appointment (AISSA, 2011). Furthermore, in Western Australia, married teaching staff or single parents with dependent children are reimbursed the full amount of the cost of relocating. Reimbursement of costs associated with relocating out of remote areas are provided to teachers and their families, as long as they have remained in the same school for at least 2 years (AISSA, 2011). Additionally, in some remote locations in Western Australia, travel costs to and from the area are paid for the Christmas vacation period (AISSA, 2011).

In Queensland, rural or remote appointments include eligibility for relocation reimbursement. The reimbursement covers: the cost of transporting personal effects, any temporary accommodation costs and any other expenses specifically related to taking up the appointment (AISSA, 2011). In most states and territories, transit insurance for teacher's personal possessions, is covered by the respective education department but there are variations between states to the items covered by the insurance (AISSA, 2011).

The provision of accommodation varies in remote communities from state to state in Australia (Herrington & Herrington, 2001; Sullivan & Johnson, 2012), as does the quality of the accommodation (Baills et al., 2002). In some locations accommodation is either not provided or is limited. In remote communities rent that is not subsidised can be extremely high (Baills et al., 2002; Herrington & Herrington, 2001). In recognition of the additional

costs of living in remote communities most states provide a cost of living allowance to offset those costs (AISSA, 2011).

Other incentives used to attract teachers to remote locations in various Australian states include: provision of additional annual leave, preferential treatment for transfer (Herrington & Herrington, 2001), employment guarantee after graduation, guaranteed permanency after a stipulated period of time, or permanency linked to an extended tenure after the first year, and guaranteed future position in a metropolitan school (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012).

Some states and territories have attempted to address the concerns about access to PD in remote locations. For example, teachers in the Northern Territory stationed in selected remote locations are approved for payment of travel costs for family members to accompany them to PD or in-service training programs in urban centres (AISSA, 2011). The assistance is limited to the cost of travel by the mode of travel normally used by the teacher (AISSA, 2011). Some communities in Queensland send out information packs to new community members to promote their community and surrounding areas including what facilities and services are available (Baills et al., 2002).

Attempts to retain teachers in remote areas in Western Australia have included reimbursement of costs for air conditioning with the amount differing according to the location of the school (AISSA, 2011). Western Australian teachers who remain in remote areas have electricity costs subsidised (AISSA, 2011).

Reid et al. (2012) noted that the Beginning Teacher Time Release (BeTTR) program in Tasmania DoE schools was aimed at supporting permanent/fixed-term teachers in their first year of employment as part of its retention strategy regardless of the school's location. They noted that the BeTTR scheme provided beginning teachers with access to release time of 2 hours per week, with funding made available to the schools to cover relief for this time.

The program benefits teachers in the larger centres of Tasmania more than it does teachers in remote areas due to the difficulty of accessing relief (substitute) teachers in remote schools.

Similar to the TFA supporting education in low socioeconomic areas, and TFC supporting education to First Nation schools, Teach for Australia provides support in areas where there is a need to help break the cycle of educational disadvantage (Teach for Australia, 2018). Teach for Australia partners with schools that serve low socioeconomic areas to provide teachers (Associates), or PD to middle tier leaders (Teach for Australia, 2018). Although the Associates provided by Teach for Australia only work in remote communities for 2 years, they gain a Master of Teaching, and are provided with coaching and mentoring.

Internationally and nationally there have been various approaches to address the attraction of teachers to, and retention of teachers in, remote communities. However, many of the international initiatives, such as; Teach for America, and Teach for Canada, and national initiatives such as; Teach for Australia, Beyond the Line, Country Teachers Program, and Teacher Intern Placement Program, addressed teacher attraction but not retention, and have targeted beginning and/or underprepared teachers rather than experienced teachers. This approach to staffing of schools in remote communities (addressing teacher attraction but not retention, and targeting beginning and/or underprepared teachers rather than experienced teachers) is no different for the four remote schools at the focus of this study. As stated in Section 1.3, the schools are traditionally staffed by beginning teachers with most leaving after 3 years. This study showed that it includes approaches to attract experienced as well as beginning teachers, and to retain teachers beyond 3 years.

2.8 Suggestions for Addressing Attraction and Retention

Section 2.4, outlined a range of reasons for which teachers may not choose to work in remote communities and Section 2.5, presented issues around teacher retention. This section presents suggestions to address teacher attraction and retention found in the literature at a national and international level. The following sections discusses various suggestions from Canada, the USA, New Zealand, and Australia.

Suggestions have included: addressing attitudes towards rural and remote schools; teacher education; induction and welcoming of new teachers; the provision of access to PD; offering incentives; and the possible role of the community. All of these are discussed in this section.

In Australia Hatton, Watson, Squires, and Soliman (1991) adopted a challenge approach to staffing:

> The challenge approach is based on the assumption that teachers can be encouraged to work in disadvantaged areas, then become further motivated through increased satisfaction which flows from successful experiences while teaching in such locations. The answers to staff shortages are to be found in selective recruitment, specific preparation, more effective induction and on the job support (Hatton et al, 1991, p. 279-280).

The challenge approach provides for longer term improvements rather than the deficit approach of quickly filling vacancies (Hatton et al., 1991). Stokes et al. (1999) discovered that members of rural and remote communities wanted policy makers and decision makers to take rural education more seriously. According to Baills et al. (2002) it is difficult to identify any major strategy for addressing the lack of departmental support networks that would work in all situations.

2.8.1 Accept Rural and Isolated Schools as a Reality

As stated in Section 2.4, Canada does not have a national education system and many of schools are located in small or remote areas. Based on his knowledge of this system, Mulcahy (2009) suggested governments and educational authorities accept that rural and remote schools are a reality and develop policies that are reflective of their distinctiveness. He pointed to the need for governments and educational authorities to change their attitude towards rural schools. For example, the term 'necessarily existent' is used to describe schools in remote and rural Canada. According to Mulcahy (2009) the term implies regret that they exist, whereas the government should accept them as viable and valuable to preserving their communities. He suggested that material and human resourcing of schools in rural and remote Newfoundland and Labrador should not be based on student enrolment but on program provision.

2.8.2 Teacher Education

Hardre (2009), Lowe (2006) and Monk (2007) all discussed the idea of identifying teachers from within the community and promoting the possibility of future teaching, Monk (2007) referred to this as a 'grow-your-own' strategy. Hardre (2009) suggested teachers originally from remote areas understand the culture, recognise the local values, and are able to work within local environments. Teachers from remote areas know how to survive the weather conditions, and the commute to shopping and services. She advocated encouraging students from remote areas to become teachers, and subsequently encouraging them to return as the next generation of educators. Hardre (2009) stated that the remote area to which they return might not necessarily be the one in which they grew up, but similar. Lowe (2006) recognised the benefits of teachers returning to their local communities. He suggested encouraging retired teachers living in the community to return to work, either part-time, or

full-time. Monk (2007) suggested recruiting prospective teachers within remote communities, allowing them to remain in their area whilst pursuing their education, and encouraging them to teach in the area once qualified. He believed this would take advantage of teachers wishing to teach to their home area. Monk (2007) further suggested encouraging paraprofessional aides already working in remote schools to acquire teaching qualifications. Monk (2007) recommended developing partnerships with universities to provide PSTs with PE placements in remote areas to help break down negative stereotypes about teaching in remote locations.

Stokes et al. (1999) suggested teachers need appropriate training for teaching in rural and remote areas in order to encourage teachers to stay longer. However, Baills et al. (2002) suggested that schools or communities should not rely on universities to produce the perfectly prepared teacher for remote communities, as they cannot prepare teachers for all situations. They suggested that rather than universities providing non-compulsory opportunities to experience remote areas they include compulsory units related to teaching and living in remote communities and that PSTs should be encouraged to spend time in all forms of schooling – urban and remote (Baills et al., 2002). Reid et al. (2012) suggested teacher education courses include a focus on place consciousness (White, 2008), place-based education (Gruenewald & Smith, 2014; Smith, 2002) (see Section 2.3.1) and community readiness (Gruenewald, 2003). The Australian Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC) (2000b) recommended all teacher education courses include a module on teaching in rural and remote communities as well as offer an option to undertake a fully funded practical placement in a remote school. Stokes et al. (1999) suggested rural or remote schools and universities should establish and maintain partnerships to support PSTs in opting for and undertaking professional experience in rural and remote schools. An extension of this suggestion was provided by the HREOC (2000b) who recommended teacher

education providers assist remote schools in the direct recruitment of graduates for their schools.

The HREOC (2000b) recommended that education departments develop recruitment strategies with teacher education providers, with education departments providing information and resources to support graduates prior to commencement in a position. The HREOC further recommended that education departments develop and implement recruitment strategies in consultation with the remote school communities. Similarly, Sullivan and Johnson (2012) suggested that graduates are notified early of their appointment thereby enabling them to prepare both personally and professionally, and that schools should not rely on graduate teachers' resilience to adapt and cope with remote appointments but put in place well researched support mechanisms for them. It is acknowledged, though, that beginning teachers do have a role to play in their appointment with Baills et al. (2002) recommending beginning teachers adopt a positive attitude to the placement and to use the opportunity to develop memorable and rewarding experiences. Sharplin (2002) suggested awarding scholarships to PSTs but acknowledged they can be expensive due to the distance of remote placements and the higher cost of living.

2.8.3 Access to Mentors

Hardre (2009) stated that teachers working in rural areas require ongoing support and access to communication and mentoring and suggested this might be achieved using technology. Lowe (2006) suggested mentoring start as soon as possible, be focused and ongoing, and as supportive as possible. Hardre (2009) found that one-to-one mentoring helps to reduce isolation, confusion and frustration. It can help to keep teachers energised and promote retention. Hardre (2009) stated without interpersonal connection, teachers might go elsewhere.

Experienced teachers in remote schools need to offer assistance to beginning teachers to support them in teaching multi-aged classrooms (Baills et al., 2002). However, realistically there are very few experienced teachers teaching in remote schools to be able to mentor beginning teachers (Baills et al., 2002; Sullivan & Johnson, 2012) and so beginning teachers need to be connected and professionally supported, by system structures that enable the provision of comprehensive support (Sullivan & Johnson, 2012). Schools that provide ongoing teacher learning opportunities and targeted mentoring programs are more likely to retain teachers (Lock et al., 2012b; White et al., 2009).

2.8.4 Professional Development (PD)

According to Lowe (2006), high quality professional development (PD) has led to teacher retention especially in small and rural schools. Hardre (2009) highlighted the importance of providing PD as a means of retaining teachers in rural and remote schools. Hardre (2009) further suggested that PD should be framed so the activities, resources and content are applied to the local context. Attendance of PD in some parts of the US can involve a ten-hour drive each way or it can be as much taking two days travelling between islands in the Pacific (Hardre, 2009). Hardre (2009) observed that teachers might feel more isolated after attending PD so sustaining connections made through PD after it is finished is important. She recommended that teachers working in rural areas should have access to material resources such as current textbooks and supplementary materials as they may be the only teacher in the district teaching a specific subject.

Mulcahy (2009) suggested that teachers in rural and remote locations in Canada required PD that is relevant to the context of being small and remote. He noted that most PD typically does not cater for teachers of multi-grade classes (common in small remote schools) and that accessibility in terms of travel time was an issue for teachers in remote locations.

In Australia, Reid et al. (2012) reported "… the professional development of teachers in rural and remote areas is an area that requires significant attention" (p. 5). The term PD was intentionally used as this included in-service teachers and PSTs. To encourage teachers to stay longer, in a remote community PD should be provided in-school because teachers feel more comfortable in own environment than in a distant town (Stokes et al., 1999). PD should be specific to the needs of the schools and the community (Downes & Roberts, 2018; Jenkins, Reitano, & Taylor, 2011; Lock et al., 2012b). If teachers are required to attend PD outside the community, Stokes et al. (1999) recommended that costs, including for accommodation and relief teachers, be funded. The HREOC (2000b) recommended education departments provide PD in remote locations relevant to the needs of teachers in remote locations. The HREOC further recommended that departments of education develop, fund, and co-ordinate PD using distance education modes, or provide the PD in regional centres. Herrington and Herrington (2001) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) suggested the use of technology as a means of maintaining contact with other professionals beyond PD events.

2.8.5 Suggested Incentives

Financial incentives have been successful in attracting teachers to remote areas with bonus and salary increases have been the most popular (Lowe, 2006). Lowe (2006) suggested incentives should be available to teachers throughout their tenure because if teachers can be encouraged to remain for 5 years they are more likely to remain even longer. The HREOC (2000b), recommended financial allowances and incentives should be provided to reflect the additional costs of living in remote areas as well as used to retain teachers "… for an optimum period of 5 years" (p. 42). The 5-year recommendation was based on their findings

that many rural schools had the responsibility of training beginning teachers, only for them to leave after 3 years.

The HEROC recommended individualising the incentives and that they might include such things as additional annual leave for travel, subsidised travel for one trip per year to a destination anywhere in Australia, additional days leave for PD, or reduced HECS fees. In relation to access to medical services, Vinson (2002) suggested that providing allowances to travel as well as provide additional sick leave would contribute to retaining teachers in remote areas. Personalising incentives to meet the needs of teachers at various ages and stages was supported by Downes and Roberts (2018) and Lyons (2009) because as Stokes et al. (1999) noted, the circumstances of teachers differ and, therefore, so do their needs.

Stokes et al. (1999) suggested providing a range of incentives such as permanency, financial remuneration, and travel costs for teachers to remain in remote and rural areas. Kelly and Fogarty (2015) found that external incentives might be more effective if teachers' attitudes, skills and knowledge were considered. Stokes et al. (1999) suggested that financial incentives be tax-free to encourage experienced teachers to teach in rural and remote areas, however, under the Australian taxation laws, outlined by the Australian Taxation Office (2018) this is not a possible solution. Baills et al. (2002) suggested that rather than attempting to coerce teachers to work in remote areas recruitment should focus on those who are willing to teach in these settings and, in return, these teachers should be provided with incentives for their dedication and service. They suggested providing bonuses after a given period of time to keep teachers in remote communities for longer. Baills et al. (2002) noted the location of the school should dictate the type of allowances and incentives.

As stated in Section 2.7, providing accommodation is an incentive already provided in a number of states but Baills et al. (2002) suggested if the accommodation is deemed inadequate then the teacher should be provided with alternative accommodation with a living

allowance provided to cater for any required rental payments. In regard to accommodation and living arrangements, Hardre (2009) suggested allowing teachers to live outside the community in which they work. In Australia, the HREOC (2000b) recommended air-conditioned, safe and affordable housing should be made available in remote communities.

As stated in Section 2.2.4, professional and personal isolation is a concern for some teachers in remote locations. Herrington and Herrington (2001) found within the first 5 years of a remote appointment, geographical and professional isolation take their toll on teachers. They suggested web-based solutions as a means of overcoming professional isolation with Baills et al. (2002) supporting these suggestions. However, the Internet does not work efficiently in many rural areas with the delays hindering access to web sites (Vinson, 2002).

2.8.6 Induction and Community

Arnold et al. (2005) recognised a need to effectively induct highly qualified teachers into rural schools. Hardre (2009) stated that in the USA, the school district that employs teachers, have a role to play along with communities in attracting teachers, by such means as providing jobs for spouses, ensuring teacher salaries and compensations are adequate, providing a safe place to raise families, and accepting teachers and their families as part of the local community. Lock et al. (2009) suggested that as soon as teachers sign a contract to teach in a remote location, the employing authority should provide as much information as possible about the school and community. Hardre (2009) suggested that the community accepts and supports the teacher to enable him/her to devote more time and attention to teaching, noting that communities, parents, and leaders need to be educated about the needs of teachers and schools. Lock et al. (2009) suggested that there should be someone available to meet the teacher when they arrive in the community. Hardre (2009) pointed to the need to educate rural community members beyond schools, to reach out, as well as look locally, for

PD opportunities, and create and support professional communities of practice, as essential to retaining teachers in remote communities. From her work in New Zealand, Edmonds (2016) observed that showing respect for teaching would do a lot for attracting and retaining teachers remote communities.

Baills et al. (2002) suggested local families could 'adopt a teacher' to support that teacher to get to know the community. The families could assist teachers in knowing what services such as medical, dental, electricians, plumbers, general repairs, might be available in the community. They recommended beginning teachers move outside of the in-school professional network and interact within the community at a personal level in order to gain greater respect from the community. They explained that beginning teachers and the community need to work together in a co-operative partnership. Lock et al. (2012b) found that when community members who explicitly introduced themselves to teachers and subsequently engaged teachers in the community, teachers were more likely to stay longer. This is because teachers who engage within the community, develop a sense of belonging (Lock et al., 2012b). Baills et al. (2002) pointed to the danger of community members comparing beginning teachers to their predecessors. Community members need to recognise that teachers leave family and friends in order to work in their community and have chosen to do so. The support that the community provides can be a major advantage of teaching in a small community (Stokes et al., 1999), and White et al. (2009) found communities had the ability to influence the retention of teachers. Lock et al. (2012b) found that communities that place an importance on their school, and value the school, are more likely to retain teachers.

2.9 Attracting and Retaining Experienced Teachers

Research in Australia and the United States has found the lack of experienced teachers in remote schools to provide mentoring and support for beginning teachers, places

students in remote areas at a disadvantage in regard to the quality and equity of educational experiences (McConaghy et al., 2006; Melnick & Meister, 2008; Sharplin, 2002). The impact on the quality and equity of educational experiences for students in remote schools owing to the way remote schools are staffed, has been recognised in Australia as well as internationally (Sharplin, 2002). Boylan and McSwan (1998) identified three attributes of teachers who were attracted and retained (beyond 6 years) in rural/remote communities: they were brought up in a rural community; they were living with a spouse or partner; and they had attended a rural teacher education institution.

2.10 Summary of Chapter 2

This chapter has defined the terms: hard-to-staff, rural, remote, regional and isolated. The difficulty of this was highlighted due to the interchangeability found in the literature. Following this, difficulties with attracting and retaining were focused on using an international and national lens. International and national implemented initiatives were discussed followed by suggestions that have been offered for addressing the attraction and retention issues. The chapter concluded with the importance for attracting and retaining experienced teachers to remote and isolated locations.

The chapter has identified the continued practice, internationally and nationally, of focusing on attracting beginning/inexperienced teachers to remote communities and recognised in most cases, that teachers leave within 5 years. This study identified similar practices operating in Tasmania but extends this by exploring ideas for attracting experienced teachers as well as encouraging teachers to stay in Tasmanian remote communities beyond 3 years. Chapter 3 describes the methodological approaches used in this study.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodology used in this study. It is organised into seven sections. Section 3.2, presents the research design. Section 3.3 describes the epistemological stance of the study with Section 3.4 presenting the theoretical perspective. Following this, Section 3.5, provides the methodology used in this study as well as the justification for the chosen methodology. Section 3.6, discusses the procedures used for data collection and Section 3.7, presents the methods of analysis. Section 3.8, addresses the ethical issues that needed to be considered during the research and the final section, Section 3.9, provides a summary of the chapter.

3.2 The Research Design

Prior to explaining the research design used in this study, mixed methods within the transformative design in detail, Figure 3.1 (adapted from Gray (2014)) shows the epistemological, theoretical and methodological stances that influenced data collection and data analysis of this study. The sections following provide the justification for the epistemological stance, the theoretical perspective, using the embedded mixed method with a

transformative design, and the choice of analysis used in this study. They include explanations of the elements of Figure 3.1.

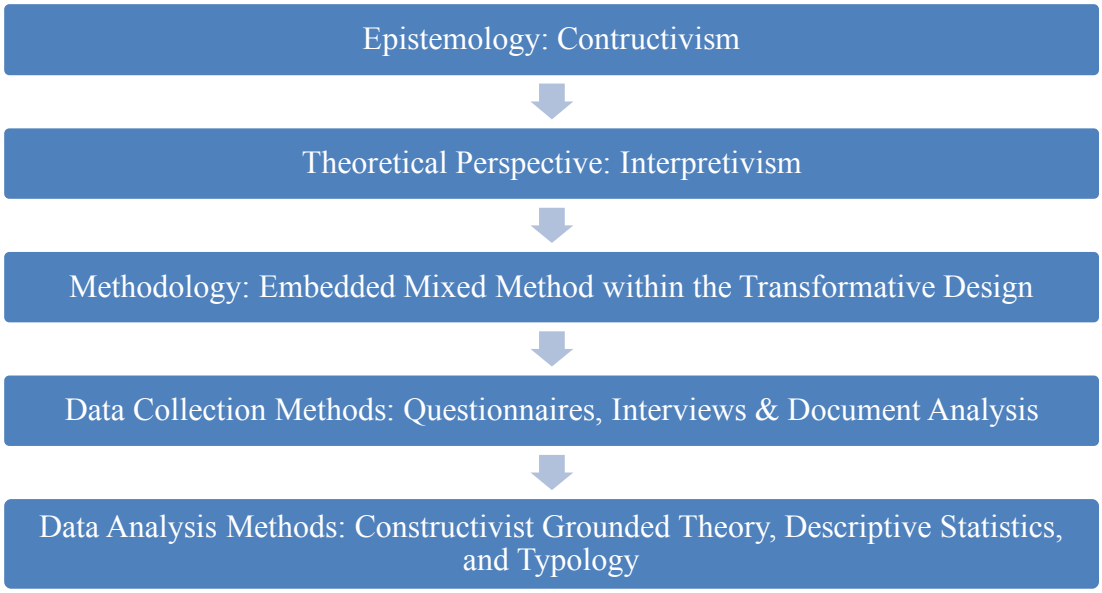

Figure 3.1. The epistemological, theoretical, methodological stances influencing data collection methods and data analysis. Adapted from Gray (2014)

After considering various research approaches and analytical frameworks, an embedded mixed method within the transformative design (Creswell, 2012), driven by a constructivist epistemological stance, with an interpretivist approach (Charmaz, 2014) was used. Conducting research within this paradigm means that the results in this study are from the perspective of the participants (Carr, 1994; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As recommended by Ridenour and Newman (2008) the research purpose and research questions used in this study formed the basis for choosing the embedded mixed method within the transformative design for this study. Greene and Caracelli (1997, p. 7) stated, "Social phenomena are extremely complex, so different kinds of methods are needed to understand the complexities of our social world more completely." This provided further support for choosing the mixed methods research design. Creswell's (2012) embedded and

transformative designs were chosen because the embedded design allows for the collection of the quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously and the transformative aspect reflects the intention to bring about change. Further explanation of the embedded design is provided in Section 3.5.2.1, and Section 3.5.2.2, provides details of the transformative design.

This approach proved to be the most suitable for the purpose of this study which focused on participants' construction of reality - for example, remote community members' perspectives regarding the placement of teachers in their community were included with teachers' own constructed realities based on their experiences whilst living and working in remote Tasmanian communities. Since this study aimed to provide recommendations for ways of encouraging teachers to teach in remote Tasmanian communities beyond 3 years, it made sense that this study investigated their perspectives. The views of each participant group at times providing opposite perspectives, were included in this study, highlighting the complexity of the issue.

In an embedded mixed method study, the qualitative data focus on the experience of the phenomenon whereas quantitative data focus on the impact of a phenomenon on participants (Creswell, 2012). The transformative design is a value-based framework that uses one of four other designs (convergent, explanatory, exploratory, or embedded) to bring about change (Creswell, 2012). These designs are further explained in Section 3.5.2.

The philosophical assumption of this study is that meaning of the world is created or constructed as a result of interactions within the world, thus this study has a constructivist epistemology. Further evidence of how this study was influenced by the constructivist epistemology is provided in Section 3.3.

Because the focus of this study was the attraction of teachers to, and retention of teachers in, remote Tasmanian communities, the views and experiences of the stakeholders were sought. Thus, an interpretivist theoretical perspective influenced this study. Additional

details as to how an interpretivist theoretical perspective influenced this study are provided in Section 3.4.

3.3 Constructivism

Constructivist epistemology is based on the principle that reality is actively constructed by individuals in and by experience. Charmaz (2000) viewed this as creating a meaningful world and the construction of such was through dialectical processes. According to Ertmer and Newby (2013), constructivists believe that the mind is the source of all learning and, therefore, direct experience with the world is critical. This view of constructivism is pertinent to this study when examining the different realities of teachers who had lived and worked in remote Tasmanian communities compared to those of participants who had not lived or worked in remote Tasmanian communities – direct experience is critical and many of the decisions about current practice have been made by people who may have no, limited, or dated experiences of having lived and worked in remote Tasmanian communities. Ertmer and Newby (2013) supported the constructivist epistemology further by stating that what we know about the world is derived from our own interpretations of our own experiences. Meaning is not acquired but created. What the participants of this study know about living and working in remote Tasmanian communities is derived from their interpretations of their own experiences – limited or otherwise. Burr (2015) stated that from the constructivist perspective, people are "actively engaged in the creation of their own phenomenal world" (p. 21). The detailed representation of the participants' perspectives and the contextual influences show active engagement in the creation of their own world.

Charmaz (2014) noted a strong connection between constructivist grounded theory and social constructionism, the difference being, constructivism refers to individuals

constructing reality through cognitive processes whereas social constructionism has a social focus (Andrews, 2012). All participants provided their perception of living and working in remote Tasmanian communities based on their own particular contextual influences. For example, the constructed reality of University of Tasmania Teacher Educators (TEs) was based on their experiences of being educators and also on their level of experience and connection with living and working in remote Tasmanian communities or in similar contexts. The construction of views about teaching in remote Tasmanian communities was informed by what individuals had seen and heard and how they had assembled what they had seen and heard. As Charmaz (2014) stated, social constructionism influences the construction of these views such as through pre-existing conceptual frameworks and categories used by people in our culture and conveyed by, for example, media and family.

Grounded theory is explained in Section 3.3.1, and constructivist grounded theory is further described in Section 3.3.2.

3.3.1 Grounded Theory

Glaser and Strauss first developed grounded theory in the late 1960s (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Creswell, 2012; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) when postpositivism was the dominant epistemology used in educational research (Higginbottom & Lauridsen, 2014). It is influenced by realist ontology and an objective epistemology (Higginbottom & Lauridsen, 2014). Grounded theorists engage with data based on previous knowledge, experience and awareness of the phenomena being examined (Higginbottom & Lauridsen, 2014). Grounded theory method is often used to describe the method of research, whereas grounded theory is the result of using the method (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). Grounded theory method is an inductive method of developing theory (Higginbottom & Lauridsen, 2014). Grounded theory method involves data collection, developing codes from the data, creating conceptual

categories, and constructing theory (Charmaz, 2006; Higginbottom & Lauridsen, 2014). The creation of categories are 'grounded' in the data (Charmaz, 2006; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Higginbottom & Lauridsen, 2014), that is, theory emerges from the data rather than being predetermined (Cohen et al., 2011). As such, theories are generated from the perspectives of participants (Creswell, 2012) although according to Charmaz (2006) the researcher starts with tentative categories. Charmaz (2006) recommended the literature review be undertaken after the analysis in grounded theory in order to compare where the analysis fits into the literature and subsequently the literature can be combined into the analysis. Creswell (2012) discussed three grounded theory designs: the systematic procedure, the emerging design, and the constructivist approach. As stated in Section 3.3, this study used the constructivist grounded theory design. This design is discussed in the next section along with how the analysis in this study followed this method.

3.3.2 Constructivist Grounded Theory

Creswell (2012) explained that constructivist grounded theory was developed by Charmaz in the 1990s because she considered grounded theory too systematic, whereas constructivist grounded theory includes the epistemological understanding of 'what it means to…'

Constructivist grounded theory is based on the constructivist ontological view that several social realities transpire simultaneously (Chong & Yeo, 2015). Constructionist research emphasises and makes explicit the beliefs and values of the researcher rather than attempting to erase them (Chong & Yeo, 2015; Creswell, 2012). This research was approached from a perspective that acknowledged there are multiple realities concerning the phenomenon of attracting teachers to, and retaining teachers in, remote communities. For this

reason, a number of homogeneous samples (Section 3.6.1.3) were included in the study so each of the realities faced by the participants could be voiced.

Charmaz (2014) explained that the constructivist approach uses the same strategies as grounded theory such as method of data collection, coding, categorisation and memo writing, but that her approach integrates developments in methodology that have transpired since the Glaser and Strauss first developed grounded theory. In constructivist grounded theory the views, values, beliefs, feelings, assumptions and ideologies of the participants are included in the coding process (Creswell, 2012). In this study, the initial coding (see Section 3.7.1.1) included all comments made by participants and by doing this, it included the views, values, beliefs, feelings, assumptions and ideologies of the participants.

Higginbottom and Lauridsen (2014) claimed that Charmaz was influenced by constructivist epistemology and cited Charmaz in defining constructivism as "…a social scientific perspective that addresses how realities are made. The perspective assumes that people…construct the realities in which they participate" (p. 10). Charmaz (2017) described how constructivist grounded theory differs from grounded theory: constructivist grounded theory included a relativist epistemological stance; the perspectives, roles and responsibilities of the participants and the researcher are acknowledged; the researcher assumes a reflexive stance in regard to "background, values, actions, situations, relationships with research participants, and representations of them" (p. 299); and the research is presented in the "historical, social and situational conditions" (p. 299) at the time of production. In regard to assuming a reflexive stance within the constructivist grounded theory, I had varying levels of familiarity with the majority of interview participants as a result of previous associations with them. There were three interview participants who were previously unknown to me. This awareness of the impact of previous relationships with the participants was as Berger (2015) discussed, a process of continual internal dialogue as well as recognition of the affect this

may have on the data, because as he stated, participants are more willing to share experiences with a researcher who is seen as understanding the situation. He further stated that familiarity between researcher and participant might affect the information participants are willing to provide. I was quite familiar with the majority of the interview participants in this study due to friendships I developed whilst working in the remote communities and was aware of this danger. I made efforts to accept their views as expressed, including by using verbatim quotes throughout the thesis.

In presenting a theory, researchers are trying to locate participants' meanings and actions, even though the participants may not be aware of them themselves (Charmaz, 2014). The meanings of the participants may reflect ideologies and it is the role of the researcher to look for assumptions on which participants construct their meanings and actions (Charmaz, 2014). It is this interpretive work of the researcher that is theorised. The constructivist grounded theory design acknowledges the theory is an interpretation (Charmaz, 2014). Creswell (2012) stated that constructivist grounded theory is more of a suggestion rather than being conclusive.

Constructivism is linked to the researcher as well as the participants. The researcher has a constructed reality that influences the research and the participants' reality provides the data (Higginbottom & Lauridsen, 2014). Chong and Yeo (2015) found constructivist grounded theory is chosen by researchers with experience of the phenomena, because as they stated "…it would be easier to reflect the reality as compared to objective outsiders…" (p. 260).

3.4 Interpretivism

Interpretivism is the theoretical perspective of this study. Interpretivism and constructivism "share a common intellectual heritage" (Schwandt, 1998, p. 222). Both

perspectives put an onus on understanding the world from the view of those who live it (King & Horrocks, 2010). In focusing on the attraction and retention of teachers to remote Tasmanian communities, the understanding of views of this phenomenon included those who live it: community members and teachers, as well as those whose role includes encouraging, and supporting teachers to go or who are in remote Tasmanian communities: TEs, Department of Education employees in higher ranking positions, as well as principals with remote experience. Reality cannot be separated from the individuals who observe it (Weber, 2004). All participants brought their own realities to this study and those realities cannot be separated from them. Constructivists and interpretivists focus on the process of how meanings are created, negotiated, sustained and modified within the context of human actions. The interpretation of these actions is through understanding (King & Horrocks, 2010; Schwandt, 1998). The interpretivist perspective is focused more on the interpretation and meaning of experience over measurement, justification and predictions, thus it describes the social world, focusing on a specific situation, method or relationship (King & Horrocks, 2010). An example of this is the inclusion in this study of the meaning of experience or what it was like for teachers living and working in remote Tasmanian communities, or what it was like for non-school based Department of Education employees who again, may have no, limited, or dated experiences, of living and working in remote Tasmanian communities making decisions for teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. Interpretivism focuses on perceptions of how people feel about the world and on making sense of it from their perspective at the time (King & Horrocks, 2010). The interviews in this study focused on the perceptions of the various stakeholders regarding the attraction and retention of teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. They enabled them to share their experiences and understandings, which in turn, enabled me to make sense of the phenomena from their perspective. From the interpretive perspective, humans participate in numerous lifeworlds -

the concrete experiences they live (Langridge as cited in King & Horrocks, 2010) - and often attribute different interpretations and meanings to similar events. According to Weber (2004) there are subjective and objective aspects of these lifeworlds. The subjective aspects reflect the perceptions of the meaning and the objective reflect the constant negotiation with others about the meanings.

In summing up interpretivism, Schutz (as cited in King & Horrocks, 2010, p. 11), provided the following explanation:

> All facts are from the outset facts selected from a universal context by the activities of our mind. They are, therefore, always interpreted facts, either facts looked at as detached from their context by an artificial abstraction or facts considered in their particular setting. In either case, they carry their interpretation of inner and outer horizons.

Having provided the epistemological stance and theoretical perspective underpinning this study, the next section provides the methodology.

3.5 Embedded Mixed Method Within the Transformative Design

Prior to describing the precise mixed methods research design that was used, it is essential to provide the justification for choosing a mixed methods approach above a purely qualitative or purely quantitative approach. The research purpose and research questions form the basis for choosing the mixed methods approach (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007; O'Leary, 2009; Ridenour & Newman, 2008). Mixed methods approaches are appropriate for studying social phenomena such as the focus of this study because as stated earlier, Greene and Caracelli (1997) referred to social phenomena as being complex and requiring different methods of research to be completely understood. The

reasons for, and means of, encouraging teachers to teach in remote Tasmanian communities, beyond 3 years are extremely complex when the perspectives of all stakeholders are taken into consideration. The issue of encouraging teachers to teach in remote Tasmanian communities and to remain longer than the 3 years required by the Tasmanian Department of Education (DoE) has been longstanding. The concern for providing greater staff stability in the isolated Tasmanian schools, was recognised in a report by Hinds (1979). The fact that the issue has been ongoing not only in Tasmania, but also in other regions of Australia and internationally, suggesting there is no simple solution. Indeed, it is a wicked problem (see Chapter 1, Section 1.5).

The mixed methods approach, combining quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods and approaches has been referred to as the third major research paradigm in educational research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Johnson et al., 2007; Ridenour & Newman, 2008). Greene and Caracelli (1997) maintained that in order for mixed methods to be defensible, justification and planning are required. In regard to having a planned, defensible mixed methods research, three levels of decision-making needed to be evident. They identified these as a political level or the level of purpose, the philosophical level or the level of paradigm, and the technical level or the level of method.

The political level identified by Greene and Caracelli included having broad value-based questions underpinning the research as well as serving a purpose in society. The political level, of this study was to focus on the attraction and retention of teachers to remote Tasmanian communities in order to provide recommendations that might improve current practice. This focus was underpinned by a strong belief that students in remote Tasmanian communities are entitled to an education equal to that provided elsewhere in Tasmania. At the philosophical level Greene and Caracelli identified making assumptions and holding a particular stance about the world. The stance used in this study was an interpretivist approach

as described in Section 3.4. At the technical level this study used an embedded mixed method approach within the transformative design. This is explained further in Section 3.5.3.

Sale, Lohfeld, and Brazil (2002) suggested two possible reasons for using mixed methods research. The first is to enable cross validation and triangulation of the data by using the two methods interdependently and the second is to produce complementary results by using the two methods independently. This study took the second of these approaches. That is, the two methods were undertaken independently to produce complementary results. Qualitative data were sourced from questionnaires, interviews and document analysis and the quantitative data came from questionnaires. The combined results of the perspectives of all stakeholders were used to provide recommendations for the attraction and retention of teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

3.5.1 Advantages and Weaknesses of Mixed Methods Research

Mixed methods research is reflective of a 'mixed world', a world that is not exclusively quantitative or qualitative (Cohen et al., 2011). Greene and Caracelli (1997) promoted mixed methods research because it intentionally combines different methods in order to gather different kinds of information. They found that combining the methods provides a meaningful and legitimate way of knowing and understanding because it generates deeper and broader insights into phenomena occurring. Although mixed methods research combines the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative paradigms complementing each other and either limiting or escaping the respective weaknesses (Creswell, 2012; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Kelle, 2006; Lund, 2012; O'Leary, 2009), there are recognised weaknesses for using the mixed methods paradigm as the research paradigm. These have been identified (along with advantages) by many researchers including Creswell (2012), Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), Kelle (2006), Lund (2012) and Hesse-Biber and Johnson

(2015). The identified advantages and weaknesses of using mixed methods research are discussed in turn in the following sections.

3.5.1.1 Advantages of Using Mixed Methods

Using the mixed methods paradigm is suited to research when either quantitative or qualitative research is not enough to answer the questions (Creswell, 2012). It enables theory to be generated and verified in the one investigation (Lund, 2012) because it enables the application of both inductive and deductive reasoning (O'Leary, 2009). O'Leary (2009) described inductive reasoning as exploring the data without predetermined themes but rather involved discovering themes as they arise in the data thus generating a theory from the themes. Exploring data inductively from the ground up is "…often referred to as the production of grounded theory..." (O'Leary, 2009, p.261). This was the primary approach used in this study. Alternatively, deductive reasoning begins with predetermined themes as a result of personal experiences, understandings from literature, the research questions or insights gained while collecting the data. The predetermined themes are intentionally looked for in the data in order to support a predetermined theory (O'Leary, 2009). In this study themes operationalised in existing questionnaires informed the questionnaires used in this study. Qualitative and quantitative results can complement each other in mixed methods research producing a more complete and complex picture of the research findings (Creswell, 2012; Lund, 2012; O'Leary, 2009).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) found mixed methods research to be more expansive, creative, inclusive, pluralistic, complementary, and not limiting when compared to using just a quantitative approach or just a qualitative approach. O'Leary (2009) noted that mixed methods research adds depth to the findings and can use: dialogue, narratives, pictures, and statistics that allow for triangulation. In this study triangulation was used in the qualitative phase by having different perspectives about the same phenomena and as well as

being used when the qualitative and quantitative data were combined. Triangulation as it applied to this study is explained further in Section 3.5.4.1.

3.5.1.2 Weaknesses of Mixed Methods

Weaknesses of using mixed methods research have been identified. The first relates to the difficulty of mixing these approaches. Greene and Caracelli (1997) found that the decision to use mixed methods was difficult to validate if the research lacked justification and planning. Researchers using the mixed methods approach need to have an understanding of the two paradigms, as well as a solid grasp of the criteria for both: that is, the need to understand the difference between validity and authenticity, reliability and dependability, and generalisability and transferability, as well as be able to collect, analyse and combine the quantitative and qualitative data appropriately (Creswell, 2012; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morse, Niehaus, Wolfe, & Wilkins, 2006; O'Leary, 2009). It is not enough simply to analyse the quantitative and quantitative data independently, it requires the data to be 'mixed' (Creswell, 2012). Details of how data were mixed in this study are provided in Section 3.5.3. Adding to these methodological complications is that the qualitative and quantitative criteria in mixed methods studies are weighted differently and the relative weightings vary significantly across studies (Lund, 2012). In this study, qualitative and quantitative data were weighted differently based on the numbers of participants in various groups. Remote community members and Tasmanian Department of Education employees in positions higher than that of principal, provided qualitative data whereas past and present teachers and principals provided predominantly quantitative data with additional qualitative data provided where additional information was sought and/or they participated in an interview.

The difficulty of a single researcher carrying out both the qualitative and quantitative methods risks being over committed by incorporating essentially two projects into one (O'Leary, 2009). Further related weaknesses in using the mixed methods relate to time

limitations (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; O'Leary, 2009) (particularly if the two methods are carried out one after the other), data collection, establishing a substantial database, and building rapport with participants (Creswell, 2012). Using mixed methods research can be more expensive to undertake compared to a monomethod approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Using mixed methods research requires the researcher to be aware of the ethical issues that may arise for qualitative as well as quantitative designs. For example, obtaining permission to use audio-visual materials and documents, and ethical issues such as maintaining anonymity of participants and communicating the purpose of the research without deception, ensuring vulnerable participants are respected and protected are ethical issues that may arise in qualitative work. Promoting the purpose of the study, not disclosing sensitive information, providing anonymity of participants, and not being deceptive have been identified as ethical issues that may arise in quantitative research. In mixed methods research the ethical issues that may arise may be from either or both aspects of the design (Creswell, 2012).

3.5.2 Categories of Mixed Methods Research

Various researchers have identified categories of mixed methods research. (e.g. Creswell (2012), Ridenour and Newman (2008), and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009)). Creswell (2012) identified six categories of mixed methods research: convergent parallel, explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential, embedded, transformative and multiphase. The research reported here into two of these categories, embedded and transformative designs. These categories are described in the following sections.

3.5.2.1 Embedded Design

Creswell's (2012) described embedded design as involving collecting the qualitative and quantitative data either simultaneously or sequentially with one form of data being the primary set and the other, the secondary or supporting set. The secondary data is used to supplement or strengthen the primary data and the two sets of data are analysed separately. As stated in Section 3.2, the qualitative data focus on the experience of the phenomenon whereas quantitative data focuses on impact of a phenomenon on participants. According to Creswell, most examples provided in literature promote the qualitative data being added into a quantitative design. Jick (1979) however, found his study resulted in the quantitative data supplementing the qualitative data, as was the case in this study.

3.5.2.2 Transformative Design

According to Creswell (2012), the transformative design is more complex than the convergent, explanatory, exploratory and embedded designs because it uses one of these four basic designs within a transformative framework in order to bring about change. The transformative framework has been described as a "framework for researchers who place a priority on social justice and the furtherance of human rights" (Mertens, 2010, p. 469). Typical transformative design research is values based. This study is based on the value proposition that students in remote Tasmanian communities are entitled to an education equal to that provided anywhere else in Tasmania. Transformative design is relevant for those who experience discrimination or oppression which may include (but is not limited to): gender, race, ethnicity, disability status, sexual orientation, poverty, age or any other trait predisposed to social injustice (Creswell, 2012; Mertens, 2010). These value-based frameworks inform the purpose of the study, the research questions and the data collection as well as the outcome of the research (Creswell, 2012). Figure 3.1 in Section 3.2, shows how these theories are positioning this study.

3.5.3 Using the Embedded Mixed Method Within the Transformative Design

The current research used the embedded design as the quantitative and qualitative data were collected simultaneously. The social issue being addressed in this study was current practice in the attraction and retention of teachers to the four government schools in a remote region of Tasmania, with the purpose of identifying ways of attracting and retaining teachers to those schools and thereby bringing about change to improve current practice. Ultimately this would address the inequity of education provision for students in remote Tasmanian communities. As stated in Section 3.2, the qualitative data within an embedded approach focuses on the experience of the phenomenon, whereas quantitative data focuses on the impact of a phenomenon on participants. In this study teachers and principals who had lived and worked in remote Tasmanian communities, or who were living and working in remote Tasmanian communities at the time this study was conducted, provided much of the qualitative data. The impacts of pre-service teacher (PST) education, various provisional factors, as well as of social and professional issues were examined in the quantitative components of questionnaires. Collectively the data provided insights into how participants perceived various related and unrelated issues influenced the attraction and retention of teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

3.5.4 Triangulation and Validation

As stated in Section 3.5, mixed methods research enables triangulation and cross validation (Sale et al., 2002). Triangulation and validation as employed in this study, are defined in this section.

3.5.4.1 Triangulation

Denzin (as cited in Jick, 1979, p. 602) defined triangulation as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon." Creswell (2012) described research triangulation as collecting and combining qualitative and quantitative data about a phenomenon, with the third point of the triangle being the phenomenon. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) stated that triangulation should occur at the end of a study as it combines and compares multiple data sources, data collection methods and analysis methods. Triangulation is used as a means of validation (Torrance, 2012) or as Flick, Garms-Homolova, Hermann, Kuck, and Rohnsch (2012) suggested, it is used as an alternative to validation. According to Denzin (2012) using triangulation in mixed methods research seeks a deeper understandings of the phenomenon. One issue with triangulation is that of replication. Fielding (2012) noted that measuring the same thing twice is impossible because a social phenomenon is not stationary.

3.5.4.2 Validity

Validity establishes how adequately the instrument used has measured what was claimed to have been measured (Babbie, 2011; Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2012) or how the instrument provides an account that faithfully represents what it intended to describe, explain or theorise (Cohen et al., 2011). In qualitative research this idea is sometimes called, 'trustworthiness'.

3.5.4.2.1 Types of Validity

There is much debate regarding the different types of validation. Shadish, Cook, and Campbell (2002) defined four types: internal, construct, external and statistical. Two of these are relevant to this study: internal and construct. Internal validity has been defined as the causal relationships between extended activity and causations, and construct validity has been

defined as generalising the findings to cause and effect. In regard to internal validation, Shadish et al. (2002) (cited Cronbach, Kruglanski and Kroy) suggested internal and construct validity be combined, as was the case in this study.

3.5.4.2.2 Validity in Mixed Methods Research

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Lund (2012) agreed that if the findings of both paradigms reach the same conclusion, confidence in the validity of the findings is if the conclusion was reached by either one of the paradigms independently. Morse et al. (2006) found that the decision-making process in mixed methods research is crucial for preserving the validity of the findings, and maintaining that validity when the supplementary component of mixed methods research is from a contrasting theoretical drive. The contrasting theoretical drive this study used is quantitative data to supplement the core theoretical drive of qualitative data. Morse et al. (2006) labelled this mixed-methods design in which the qualitative data is more prominent than the simultaneous supplementary quantitative data, the QUAL + quan design.

If the findings from the quantitative and qualitative data contradict each other within a mixed-methods project this can result can be further reflection, a revised hypothesis, modified interpretations and conclusions, or suggestions for further research (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Lund, 2012). Mixed methods research is not used to corroborate findings but to expand the understanding of the study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In other words, rather than using quantitative research to validate the findings of a qualitative research or vice versa, the use of both research methods provides a broader view of the phenomenon. Reams and Twale (2008) found that using mixed methods research elicits maximum information and perceptions, provides greater validation of the data, and provides less prejudiced and more accurate conclusions.

3.5.4.2.3 Validity in Grounded Theory

Creswell (2012) stated that validity is an ongoing component of grounded theory. During open coding, further explained in Section 3.7.1.2, data are compared between the information and the emerging themes. During axial coding, data are triangulated again between the themes and the categories (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). This process is similar to what Glaser and Strauss (1967) referred to as the constant comparative method. The constant comparative method combines explicit coding, or line-by-line coding (see Section 3.7.1.3), with theory development, or focused coding (explained in Section 3.7.1.4), in order to develop theory more systematically. Glaser and Strauss (1967) stated that comparative analysis is to be used with theoretical sampling on new or previously collected qualitative data. Validation occurs after the development of a theory by comparing the process with processes found in the literature. As Babbie (2011) stated, the validity of a research is provided by other researchers by way of using the literature as sources of agreement.

Having provided the evidence of triangulation and validation of this study, the next section discusses data collection.

3.6 Data Collection

The purpose of the research was to examine stakeholders' perceptions of the responsibility for and possible ways of attracting teachers to, and retaining them at four government schools in remote Tasmanian communities. Different sampling schemes were considered followed by identifying the sample groups to be included in this study.
The research identified the key stakeholders who had influenced current practice and also those affected by these practices as potential sample groups. These included:

- Principals and teachers who had taught (since 2000) or were teaching in one of the four remote government schools in 2015;

- Faculty of Education staff from the University of Tasmania who were responsible for planning and implementing preservice teacher education programs;
- Final year pre-service teachers from the School of Education at the University of Tasmania;
- The General Manager of Learning Services North West (the region in which the schools were located) as well as Department of Education Human Resources personnel based in Learning Services North West (since 2000) (Learning Services North following amalgamation in 2015);
- The Minister for Education and/or the Secretary to the Minister;
- Department of Education Tasmania employees who had been responsible for overseeing the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools program;
- The North/North West Industrial Officers on the Tasmanian Branch of the Australian Education Union (AEU) 2000-2015; and
- Representatives from the remote community, including parents (School Association and Parents and Friends committees), local business people, local council members and employees, and members of a remote Tasmania Futures Committee.

The study was conducted based on the four specific research questions:

1. Why do teachers choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?
2. Why do teachers transfer out of Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?
3. What strategies and policies have been implemented for attracting and retaining teachers to Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

4. What strategies do key stakeholders believe may work for attracting and then retaining teachers in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

The sampling schemes and participating sample groups used in this study are discussed in Section 3.6.1. Following the explanations of the sampling schemes and sample groups, Sections 3.6.2 - 3.6.4, provide details of the instruments used in this study: questionnaires, interviews and document analysis.

3.6.1 Mixed Methods Sampling

Mixed method sampling was used because it provided samples that would address all research questions. Gray (2014) outlined five schemes used in mixed methods research: basic mixed methods sampling, sequential mixed methods sampling, concurrent mixed methods sampling, multilevel mixed methods sampling, and combination of mixed methods sampling strategies.

This study used concurrent mixed methods sampling (Gray, 2014) as described in the following Section 3.6.1.1, purposive sampling schemes in Section 3.6.1.2 with homogeneous sampling defined in Section 3.6.1.3. A debate on sample size is provided in Section 3.6.1.4 followed by a discussion of each of the sample groups used in this study in Sections 3.6.1.5 - 3.6.1.9.

3.6.1.1 Concurrent Mixed Methods Sampling

K. Collins (2010) and Gray (2014) described concurrent or simultaneous sampling as occurring when the qualitative and quantitative phases of a study are carried out at the same time or in close temporal proximity. In a concurrent sampling design, the data from one phase do not inform the data from the other, but instead all data are combined and interpreted together (K. Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Jiao, 2007). Within the mixed methods sampling

designs, K. Collins et al. (2007) identified four different relationships that can exist between quantitative and qualitative samples. These are identical, parallel, nested or multilevel designs. They explained that the multilevel relationship between quantitative and qualitative involves obtaining two or more sets of samples from different populations in the different phases of the research. This study used a multilevel relationship as it included different populations in the different phases of the research and included: remote community members; teachers and principals; past and present general managers; TEs; and UTAS final year PSTs. The quantitative phase included: teachers and principals, TEs, and PSTS. The qualitative phase included, representative groups from the communities, a non-school based Department of Education employee, principals and teachers, TEs and a PST. Table 3.1 shows in which phase of the research each sample group was involved and the format that this took.

Table 3.1

Research Phase of Sample Groups

Sample Groups	Qualitative Phase	Quantitative Phase
Community Members	Interview	
Non-School Based DoE Employee	Interview	
Past Teachers and Principals	Questionnaire and/or Requested Interview	Questionnaire
2015 Teachers and Principals	Questionnaire and/or Requested Interview	Questionnaire
Pre-Service Teacher Educators	Questionnaire and/or Requested Interview	Questionnaire
Pre-Service Teachers	Questionnaire and/or Requested Interview	Questionnaire

3.6.1.2 Purposive Sampling

The groups included in this study were purposefully selected because the aim was not to generalise but to "acquire in-depth information from those who are in a position to give it" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 157) and to add to existing theories or generate new ones by gaining

new understandings or perceptions about the given phenomenon (K. Collins, 2010). Specifically, this study required in-depth information to assist me to gain new understandings and perceptions of the issues of attraction and retention of teachers to remote Tasmanian communities and sought those in positions to provide this information.

According to Babbie (2011) purposive sampling is alternatively referred to as judgemental sampling. He stated that in some instances smaller subsets of a larger population were used in purposive sampling because it might be impossible to enumerate the entire sample. In this study, not all the population of each sample identified was included in this study. Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) listed 24 sampling schemes than can be used in mixed methods research of which they considered 19 to be purposive One of these, homogeneous sampling, was used in this study. Its use is explained in the next section.

3.6.1.3 Homogeneous Sampling

Homogeneous sampling suited this study because it involves intentionally selecting groups based on the groups having similar or specific characteristics (Cohen et al., 2011; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007) such as having membership of a subgroup of a community (Creswell, 2012). According to Gray (2014), homogeneous sampling enables small, homogeneous groups to be described in depth and can assist in generating discussion in the focus groups due to participants' commonalities. The participants in the group interviews in this study were quite familiar with each other, which assisted in the dynamics and discussions that took place. In accordance with Cohen et al's (2011) recommendation, the groups were used to focus on a specific issue because they were considered to be the "knowledgeable people" (p. 57), with in-depth knowledge about the relevant issues (Creswell, 2012). Homogeneous sampling is the preferred scheme for sampling in phenomenological approaches because it enables patterns and meanings to be identified (Gray, 2014).

Samples in this study were purposively chosen based on identification of belonging to a specific homogeneous group. These groups were: remote community members; past and present teachers and principals; non-school based Department of Education Tasmania employees; TEs; and final year PSTs. Each group is discussed in Sections 3.6.1.5 - 3.6.1.9.

3.6.1.4 Sample Size

A number of researchers, including Cohen et al. (2011), K. Collins et al. (2007), Creswell (2012) and Teddlie and Yu (2007) have stipulated the number of participants a sample should include. Teddlie and Yu (2007) suggested that a purposive sample should include 30 or fewer cases and Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) cited Creswell in recommending 15-20 participants for grounded theory research. Gray (2014) stated that there is no simple answer to how large or small a relevant sample size is because there are a number of factors to be considered including time and cost. Gray (2014) stated that the sample size in qualitative data should not be so small that is does not reach saturation. The size of each sample used in this study is explained in Sections 3.6.1.5 - 3.6.1.9.

3.6.1.5 Community Sampling

Following the purposive sampling scheme, the remote community members were selected because the four research questions were aimed at developing an understanding of the perspectives of those directly affected by the current practice of teacher employment in remote Tasmanian communities. It was important to select participants with the experience and/or knowledge of the impact the current practice has in the remote Tasmanian communities. In order to provide multiple perspectives, various community representatives from the four remote communities where government schools were located were invited to participate. These included parents (School Association and Parents and Friends committees), local business people (contact information for these were sourced from the respective directories for each of the four communities available at the time in remote Tasmanian

communities Council website), local council members and employees, and members in remote Tasmanian communities Futures Committee (an education advisory committee comprising of: the mayor, councillors, principals from the remote schools, mine and local business representatives, as well as a representative from the Department of Education).

3.6.1.6 Past and 2105 Teacher and Principal Sampling

Past teachers and principals (collectively referred to as past teachers) and 2015 teachers and principals (2015 teachers), were selected because the combined aim of the four research questions was to develop an understanding of perspectives of those directly affected by the current practice of teacher employment in remote Tasmanian communities. It was important to select participants with direct experience of the impact of the current practice of teacher employment in remote Tasmanian communities. In order to provide multiple perspectives of the impact, past teachers, and 2015 teachers, from the four Government remote schools were invited to participate.

Because this study aimed to understand the current practice of attracting and retaining teachers from the perspectives of those with the knowledge and experience, teachers and principals from 2000 - 2015 were chosen. Any perspectives provided by teachers and principals who lived and worked in remote Tasmanian communities before the 2000's would have represented practices at that time. Although documentation was not available, I was aware that changes in strategies and practices to attracting teachers to and then retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities had occurred prior to 2000, therefore they would not be relevant to the aim of this study. The cut off date of 2000 was also chosen for pragmatic reasons related to data availability. These are detailed in Section 8.8. One participant who had had three separate appointments to the remote community in three of the four government schools had knowledge of previous and current practice and provided comments regarding the changes as she had experienced them.

3.6.1.7 Non-School Based Department of Education Tasmania Employee Sampling

As mentioned in Section 3.6, various stakeholders were identified as potential participants in this study. Non-school based Department of Education employees included the following: the Deputy Secretary to the Minster for Education; past General Managers of Learning Services North West from 2000 – 2014 (Learning Services North West amalgamated with Learning Services North in 2015), the current General Manager for Learning Services North (2015); as well as Department of Education Tasmania employees with the responsibility for overseeing the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools program (explained in Section 6.3.4).

3.6.1.8 University of Tasmania Pre-Service Teacher Educator (TE) Sampling

With the aim of developing an understanding of the perspectives of those directly affected by the current practice of teacher employment in remote Tasmanian communities, pre-service teacher educators (TEs) were included in the sampling.

3.6.1.9 Final Year Pre-Service Teacher Sampling

UTAS final year PSTs were selected to represent potential teachers who might go to the remote community. They were selected because of their potential knowledge of the preparation for teaching in remote communities provided by the university, including the Professional Experience in Remote or Isolated Schools (PEIRS) program aimed at supporting final year PSTs to undertake their final professional experience placement in one of 37 participating schools including those that were the site of this study. PEIRS is further discussed in Section 6.3.4.

3.6.2 Online Questionnaires

Online questionnaires were created using Qualtrics software (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). Four questionnaires were created targeting four different sample groups: past teachers, (2015)

teachers, TEs, and UTAS final year PSTs. The questionnaires included 5 point Likert-type questions as well as provision for open-ended comments. The questionnaires took no longer than 30 minutes to complete. The past teachers' questionnaire included 23 items (see Appendix B), the (2015) teachers included 25 items (see Appendix C), the TEs included 17 items (see Appendix D), and UTAS final year PSTs included 21 items (see Appendix E). Many of the items included in the questionnaires used the exact wording or a paraphrase of the wording used by Roberts (2004). The questionnaires were accessed via an anonymous emailed link. Qualtrics generated personal identification codes ensuring that each participant completed the questionnaire once only. An Information Sheet was attached to the survey (see Appendix M) with consent provided by participants choosing an 'I agree' radio button (see Appendix C for an example of the questionnaire consent format). Following Section 3.6.2.3, Table 3.6 shows the number of participants in each group invited to participate and the number of responses received.

3.6.2.1 Teachers and Principals

Prior to including past and present teachers and principals in this study it was necessary to access gatekeepers (King & Horrocks, 2010). The gatekeeper for the Department of Education was identified and an 'Application Form for Permission to Conduct Research in Tasmanian Government Schools and Colleges' was lodged. Following receipt of permission (see Appendix K), insider assistance as described by King and Horrocks (2010), was used. The principals of three of the remote Government schools were contacted seeking their assistance in providing names of past teachers they were aware of having taught at their respective schools since 2000. At this time, I was principal at one of the remote schools, therefore only three principals were contacted. Insider assistance was required because the Department of Education Tasmania does not maintain a record of previous years' school

placements of school based staff. Names of teachers at each of the schools in the given year were publically available on the Tasmanian Government Directory Service website. Some of the principals were able to assist in supplying names of past teachers but unfortunately for schools with relatively new principals, the names of teachers who had previously taught in their school were not available.

In the first round, questionnaires were sent to past teachers and the (2015) teachers, mid 2015. The questionnaires for past teachers and the (2015) teachers had similar questions. The questionnaires had eight sections beginning with a demographic section. Four sections focused on personal factors and included: education and training, initial reasons for living and working in remote Tasmanian communities, influential factors for remaining beyond 3 years, and career direction after leaving the region. The other three sections sought participants' opinions regarding: provisions for attracting teachers, provisions for retaining teachers beyond 3 years, and social and professional factors that might act as disincentives for living and working in remote Tasmanian communities (see Appendix B and Appendix C for the instruments used in this research)

Table 3.2 shows that from 50 invitations to participate in a questionnaire sent to past teachers and principals, 23 questionnaires were started and 16 were complete. Table 3.3 shows that from the 41 invitations sent to 2015 teachers and principals, 15 questionnaires were started and 14 were completed. In total, seven participants were temporary /had short term contracts, and 23 had a permanent position with the Department of Education. Fourteen had worked in a non-remote school prior to working in a remote school. One participant had a Master of Education, 22 had a Bachelor of Education, one had a Bachelor of Teaching, and one had a Diploma of Teaching. Thirteen participants were single while they were in remote Tasmanian communities, one of these had a child or children. Seventeen teachers were married throughout their time in remote Tasmanian communities, and eight had children.

Table 3.2

Demographic Characteristics of Past Teachers and Principals

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Teaching Area	Longest Held Position	Most Senior position held	Highest Qualification	Teacher Education in Tasmania	Years since graduation	Consecutive years on W.C.
PT1	F	40-49	Secondary	Teacher	AP/AST	B.Ed.	No	19	3
PT2	F	20-29	Early Childhood	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	4	9
PT3	F	20-29	Secondary	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	2	5
PT4	F	30-39	Primary	Principal	Principal	B.Ed.	Yes	0	9
PT5	F	20-29	Primary	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	0	2
PT6	F	50+	Primary	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	No	38	3
PT7	F	20-29	Secondary	Teacher	Teacher	M. Teach.	Yes	1	1
PT8	F	20-29	Early Childhood	Teacher	Teacher	B. Teach	Yes	0	3
PT9	F	20-29	Secondary	Teacher	AP/AST	B. Teach	Yes	0	3
PT10	F	40-49	EC & Prim	Principal	Principal	B.Ed.	No	28	4
PT11	M	20-29	Secondary	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	0	3
PT12	F	20-29	Early Childhood	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	1	5
PT13	F	20-29	Secondary	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	1	1
PT14	M	30-39	Primary	Principal	Principal	M. Teach	Yes	3	1
PT15	F	20-29	Early Childhood	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	0	3
PT16	F	20-29	Primary	Teacher	Teacher	B.Ed.	Yes	0	3

Table 3.3

Demographic Characteristics of 2015 Teachers and Principals

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Teaching Area	Position	Highest Qualification	Teacher Education in Tasmania	Years since graduation	Consecutive years on W.C.
CT1	F	40-49	Primary	Principal	M. Ed	Yes	26	0
CT2	M	40-49	K-12	Principal	B.Ed	Yes	23	20
CT3	F	20-29	Secondary	Teacher	M Teach	Yes	3	1
CT4	F	30-39	Primary	Teacher	B.Ed	Yes	9	7
CT5	M	30-39	Secondary	Teacher	Dip. Ed	No	3	3
CT6	F	20-29	Primary	Teacher	M. Teach	Yes	0	0
CT7	F	40-49	Science K-10	Teacher	M. Teach	Yes	2	0
CT8	F	50+	Literacy	AST/AP	B.Ed	Yes	16	0
CT9	F	40-49	Primary	AST/AP	B.Ed	Yes	13	10
CT10	M	50+	Grade 3-10	Student support	B.Teach	Yes	8	3
CT11	M	20-29	Secondary	AST/AP	B.Ed	Yes	3	3
CT12	F	50+	Secondary	AST/AP	B.Ed	Yes	28	15
CT13	F	20-29	Primary	Teacher	B.Ed	No	0	0
CT14	M	20-29	Secondary	Teacher	B.Ed	Yes	7	5

3.6.2.2 University of Tasmania Pre-service Teacher Educators (TEs)

Insider assistance was required to identify the participants who met the criteria of being an educator of final year PSTs. TEs were included in the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study. The initial involvement was an invitation to participate in an on-line questionnaire. Using the 'insider' (a faculty member at UTAS), an invitation to participate in a questionnaire was distributed to those faculty members who met the sampling criteria. Invitations to participate in a questionnaire were sent to TEs early 2016. These were distributed to 97 TEs.

The questionnaire for the TEs had similar topics to the questionnaire for final year PSTs. It had six sections with the first seeking demographic information. The second section sought participants' involvement in providing units specifically focusing on isolated and/or remote service, followed by a section on participants' level of involvement in professional experience (PE) placements for PSTs. The fourth asked about the PEIRS program provided by UTAS in partnership with the DoE. The fifth section focused specifically on PE placements in remote Tasmanian communities while the final section sought participants' opinions regarding the role of UTAS in attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities (the TE questionnaire is provided in Appendix D).

From 97 invitations sent to TEs, 11 questionnaires were started and 7 were completed. With the small sample size, there was not much variation among the participants who comprised six unit coordinators and a lecturer. The sample included four females and three males. Table 3.4 shows the demographic characteristics of TEs who participated in this study.

Table 3.4

Demographic Characteristics of University of Tasmania Pre-service Teacher Educators

Pseudonym	Gender	Educator Role	Course Involvement
TE1	M	Lecturer	B.Ed (Primary), B.Ed (AL), M. Teach (Secondary)
TE2	M	Unit Co-ordinator	B.Ed (EC), B.Ed (Primary), B.Ed (Specialisations), M. Teach (Primary), M. Teach (Secondary)
TE3	F	Unit Co-ordinator	B.Ed (EC), B.Ed (Primary), B.Ed (AL), M.Teach (Primary), M. Teach (Secondary)
TE4	F	Unit Co-ordinator	B.Ed (EC), B.Ed (Primary), B.Ed (Specialisations), M.Teach (Primary), M.Teach (Secondary)
TE5	M	Unit Co-ordinator	B.Ed (Primary), B.Ed (Specialisations), M.Teach (Primary), M.Teach (Secondary)
TE6	F	Unit Co-ordinator	B.Ed (EC),B.Ed (Primary), M.Teach (Secondary)
TE7	F	Unit Co-ordinator	B.Ed (EC), B.Ed (Primary), M.Teach (Primary)

3.6.2.3 University of Tasmania Final Year Pre-service Teachers (PSTs)

Like the TEs, insider assistance was required to identify the participants who met the criteria of being a final year PST. Initial involvement was an invitation to participate in an on-line questionnaire. Using the 'insider' (a faculty member at UTAS), an invitation to participate in a questionnaire was distributed to PSTs who met the sampling criteria of being in their final year of pre-service teaching at the university. Invitations to participate in a questionnaire were sent to UTAS final year PSTs, early 2016. These were distributed to 351 final year PSTs.

The questionnaires for the PSTs were based on similar questions to those included in the questionnaires for past teachers, and, the 2015 teachers, and a section that included similar questions to those included in the questionnaire for TEs. The PST questionnaire had seven sections beginning with a demographic section. One section focused on opportunities for undertaking units specifically focusing on isolated and/or remote service, one section on professional experience opportunities and another on the PEIRS. The final three sections were identical to three sections in the past and present teacher and principal questionnaires –

seeking participants' opinion regarding: provisions for attracting teachers, provisions for retaining teachers beyond 3 years, and social and professional factors that might act as disincentives for living and working in remote Tasmanian communities (the PST questionnaire is provided in Appendix E).

From 351 invitations sent to final year PSTs, 26 questionnaires were started and 19 were completed. Of the 19 participants, seven were undertaking the Bachelor of Education (Primary), five the Master of Teaching (Primary), three the Master of Teaching (Secondary) and, one the Bachelor of Early Childhood Education. The sample included 17 females and 2 males. Table 3.5 shows the demographic characteristics of the PSTs who participated in this study and Table 3.6 shows the total number of participants in each group invited to participate and the number of responses received.

Table 3.5

Demographic Characteristics of University of Tasmania Pre-service Teachers

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Enrolled Course
PST1	F	20 - 29	Masters of Teaching (Primary) & Professional Honours - Inclusive Education Certificate
PST2	F	20 - 29	Master of Teaching (Primary)
PST3	M	20 - 29	Master of Teaching (Secondary)
PST4	F	20 - 29	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST5	F	40-49	Master of Teaching (Primary)
PST6	F	30 - 39	Master of Teaching (Secondary)
PST7	F	20 - 29	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST8	F	20 - 29	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST9	F	30 - 39	Bachelor of Education (Early Childhood)
PST10	F	20 - 29	Master of Teaching (Primary)
PST11	F	20 - 29	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST12	F	20 - 29	Master of Teaching (Secondary)
PST13	F	40-49	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST14	F	20 - 29	Master of Teaching (Primary)
PST15	F	20 - 29	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST16	M	20 - 29	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST17	F	40-49	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST18	F	20 - 29	Bachelor of Education (Primary)
PST19	F	30 - 39	Bachelor of Education (Early Childhood)

Table 3.6

Questionnaire Distribution to Past and Current (2015) Teachers and Principals

Questionnaire	Number Sent	Started	Number Completed	Completion Rate
Past Teachers	50	23	18	36%
2015 Teachers	41	15	14	34%
TEs	97	11	10	10%
PSTs	351	26	20	6%

3.6.3 Semi-Structured Interviews

Questionnaires alone were not appropriate, because the detail provided in interviews would not be forthcoming in a questionnaire. Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutman, and Hanson (2003) argues that the detail of qualitative data can provide insights not available through general quantitative questionnaires even when they include scope for participants to provide qualitative data as well. As stated in Section 3.4, Weber (2004) referred to perceptions provided in interviews as subjective in that the participants provide their perceptions.

Creswell (2012) recommended that the approach to data analysis should reflect the type of design used for collecting the data. This study used an embedded design and so the data were analysed using the embedded design analysis. That is, qualitative and quantitative data are analysed separately to accommodate different questions (Creswell, 2012). In the research reported here, the qualitative and quantitative data were analysed separately because the data sets comprised responses to different questions tailored to different stakeholders. For example, remote community interviews provided qualitative data whereas past and present teachers and principals provided predominantly quantitative data using a Likert-type scale with additional qualitative data provided where additional information was sought and/or they participated in an interview.

Remote community members, a non-school based Department of Education Tasmania Employee, as well as participants who agreed to be interviewed following the online questionnaire; past and present teachers and principals, TEs, and a final year PST participated in individual and focus group semi-structured interview. Remote community members were interviewed rather than surveyed based on pragmatic reasons related to access to the internet in the remote communities. The choice of the interview location, and time of the interview, was based on the consideration of the participants as recommended by King and Horrocks (2010). At each interview verbal permission was obtained for audio recording. As a means of validating the transcripts, all participants involved in the semi-structured interviews were sent a copy of the relevant transcript. To provide anonymity to the participants who took place in an interview, a pseudonym was allocated in any reporting of the data. Sections 3.6.3.1 - 3.6.3.3, describe the semi-structured interviews undertaken in this study.

3.6.3.1 Remote Community Members

Various representatives from the remote community who were living in and/or contributing to the remote community between 2014 and 2015 were identified to participate in this study. The study included parents, local business people, local council members and employees and members of a Futures Committee (explained in Section 3.6.1.5). The parents invited to participate were based on their involvement in school bodies: School Associations, and Parents and Friends. The contact information for local businesses were sourced from four separate business directories (one for each of the respective towns) available at the time in remote Tasmanian communities Council website. The contact details for local council members and employees as well as community members of a Futures Committee were sourced directly from the local council website. Principals, although a member of the Futures Committee, were not invited to participate in the interview as they were included in the study as a current principal and invited to participate in an online questionnaire.

In total 108 letters of invitation that included an information sheet (see Appendix M) consent form (see Appendix N) and a copy of the questions to be asked during the interview (see Appendix F) were sent. Unfortunately, the information in the community directories was not up to date, and a number of the businesses listed in the combined directories were no longer operating. The letters of invitation resulted in 15 members from the remote community participating in this study.

Involvement was by participation in one of the five face-to-face interviews however, two community members responded to the interview questions in writing as they were not available at the time of the interviews. Thirteen of the participants participated in one of the homogeneous focus group interviews. Four of the focus group interviews took place in the remote communities and one individual interview took place outside of the region. The group interviews took from 16 to 48 minutes and involved 1 to 4 participants. Interview times do not include informal rapport building of approximately 15 minutes before each interview. Four separate venues were used for each of the interviews with each venue suggested by at least one member of the respective group. The time of each interview was based on the availability of the participants with interviews starting between 3pm and 7pm over two days. The participants included: 2 parents, 6 business representatives, 3 council members/employees and 4 advisory group members. The sample included 9 females and 6 males. The demographic characteristics of the community participants are provided in Table 3.7. Pseudonyms have been provided for remote community participants.

Having the perspectives from remote community participants as to why they thought teachers went to the remote community, why teachers left, and why some teachers stayed longer than 3 years. During focus group interviews, remote community participants provided their perspective on what they thought the experience of living and working in remote Tasmanian communities was like for teachers. The participants had the opportunity to

provide their perspective for what might be done to encourage teachers to stay longer (see Appendix F for the interview schedule used with community participants

Table 3.7

Demographic Characteristics of Community Participants

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Homogeneous Group
Cindy	F	50+	Business Representative
Danelle	F	40-49	Business Representative
Gina	F	50+	Business Representative
Harriett	F	50+	Business Representative
Joan	F	50+	Business Representative
Meg	F	50+	Business Representative
Nicolas	M	50+	Council Representative
Peter	M	40-49	Council Representative
Wanita	F	20-29	Council Representative
Frank	M	50+	Futures Committee
Monica	F	50+	Futures Committee
Perry	M	Not provided	Futures Committee
Warren	M	40-49	Futures Committee
Bianca	F	40-49	Parent
Heath	M	40-49	Parent

3.6.3.2 Non-School Based Department of Education Tasmania Employee

Third party support for recruitment was used for non-school based Tasmanian Department of Education employees since these participants were senior Department of Education employees. A faculty member at UTAS sent a total of 12 letters of invitation, including an information sheet, a consent form, and a copy of the questions to potential participants.

Only one non-school based Tasmanian Department of Education employee participated in a face-to face interview. Difficulties of providing complete anonymity due to

his high-profile position were discussed. The interview took place at my place of employment as chosen by the participant. The interview took 40 minutes. The interview time does not include informal rapport building of approximately 10 minutes before the interview.

Including non-school based Department of Education employees was considered vital when focusing on the responsibility of attraction and retention. In addition, because the study aimed to provide recommendations for encouraging teachers to teach in remote Tasmanian communities beyond 3 years, including non-school based Department of Education employees was assumed to be fundamental for providing an insight into current practice with consideration of how this might be improved. One non-school based DoE employee participated in a face to face interview.

3.6.3.3 Individual Interviews

At the end of the respective questionnaires, participants were invited to participate in a face-to-face interview. The participants who opted for an individual face-to-face interview, chose the time and location of their interview. Interview times do not include informal rapport building of approximately 15 minutes before each interview.

Two past teachers, two past principals and a current teacher took part in individual interviews, four females and one male. (Appendix H provides the interview schedule used for these participants.) Three interviews took place in the private homes of the participants, one at a UTAS campus, and the fifth interview, at the place of my employment. The time of each interview was based on the availability of the participants with interviews starting between 11am and 7pm. The interviews took from 8 to 28 minutes.

Two TEs each took part in an interview. (Appendix I provides the interview schedule used for these participants.) Their specific roles were sought, and whether that included promoting the region as an option for professional placement/future teaching, as well as any knowledge they had in regards to communication between university and the remote schools,

specific to the attraction of teachers to the remote communities. The interviews took place at two campuses of UTAS. The interviews took from 10 to 20 minutes.

One UTAS final year PST took part in an interview. Having the perceptions from this participant as to what she believed it would be like to live and work in remote Tasmanian communities, what would encourage her to accept a teaching position, as well as what would discourage her, added another perspective to the data. The interview took place at a UTAS campus. The interview took 10 minutes.

3.6.4 Document Analysis

Nine documents were used to gather data regarding current practices. These documents related to: industrial conditions, incentives, accommodation (housing), relocation expenses, the Beginning Teachers Time Release program (BeTTR) and, two partnership programs between the DoE and the University of Tasmania: PEIRS, the and the Teacher Intern Placement Program. Two of the documents were produced by the Tasmanian Industrial Commission. One of the documents was the Teacher Transfer/ Assignment of Permanent Duties Industrial Agreement 2013 (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013) effective until April 2016. Teaching Service Salaries and Conditions of Employment Agreement 2014 (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2014b), was effective until January 2016. Six documents were produced by the Department of Education of Tasmania: Beginning Teachers Time Release (DoE, 2016a); PEIRS; Guidelines (DoE, 2016b); Schedule of Allowances (DoE, 2014c); Relocation Expenses Procedures (DoE, 2014b); Obtaining Employment as a Teacher (DoE, 2014a); and Developing our Workforce: Teacher Intern Placement Program (DoE, 2015). All Department of Education of Tasmania produced documents represent the situational conditions at the time of this study. The eighth document was a report that resulted from a DoE commissioned review of housing provision in remote and isolated areas of Tasmania. The document, Review of Teacher Accommodation in North West Tasmania:

Final Report for the Department of Education, Tasmania (Guenther, 2011) represents the situational conditions at the time of this study.

3.7 Data Analysis

Constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014) was used to analyse the interviews, documents and qualitative component of the questionnaires. Descriptive statistics (Burns, 2000) were used to analyse the quantitative questionnaire data, with typology (Weber, as translated by Bruun & Whimster, 2012) used to provide an extended analysis of the combined qualitative and quantitative data to categorise teachers who leave remote communities, and teachers who stay. Section 3.7.1, explains the processes undertaken in the analysis of qualitative data. The use of descriptive statistics to analyse quantitative data is explained in Section 3.7.2, and typology is defined in Section 3.7.3.

3.7.1 Qualitative Analysis

QSR International's NVivo for Mac version 10 and 11 (hereafter referred to as NVivo) was used to support the analysis of the data. All audio-recorded interviews were transcribed then imported into in NVivo as sources. The qualitative data provided in the questionnaires were imported as sources. Charmaz (2006) stated using transcribed interviews provided detail of participant's explicit views and provided for the researcher to repeatedly review the data.

3.7.1.1 Broad Brush Coding

First, 'broad brush coding' of the data into the four research questions was undertaken. Siccama and Penna (2008) described broad brush coding as categorising data into broad themes and Charmaz (2006) stated the researcher starts with tentative categories. In this study, the broad themes, or tentative categories, were the research questions. Four nodes based on the four research questions: Why teach in remote Tasmanian communities

(and why not), Why teachers leave the communities (and why not), Current strategies and policies, and Suggested Strategies, were created. Child nodes were created in three of these nodes to enable data to be further categorised. These nodes are shown in Figure 3.2.

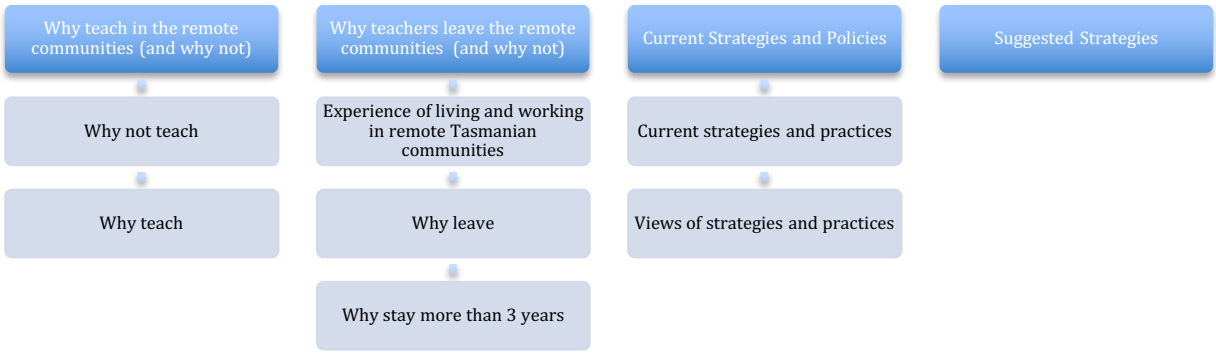

Figure 3.2. Four broad categories were based on the four research questions. Child nodes were created to subdivide the data.

3.7.1.2 Open Coding

Following the broad-brush coding, open coding was undertaken to obtain initial categories from the data. This was achieved using two levels of coding described by Charmaz (2006) as line-by-line coding and focused coding. "Coding is the pivotal link between collecting data and developing an emerging theory to explain these data" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 92). Using two levels of coding brought me closer to the data. The process for using the two levels is explained in the following sections.

3.7.1.3 Line-by-Line Coding

Coding the data enables similarities and differences among participants to be identified (Cohen et al., 2011). Almost every line in the data was coded using single word or short phrased concepts to represent the data or in vivo coded (using participants own words). For example; the word 'isolated' was used quite often by participants but this was coded as 'geographical location' whereas, one participant stated; "And there's that negative publicity

for the joint." This provided the in vivo code 'negative publicity'. The codes created at this stage were short and specific, as recommended by Charmaz (2006). In total 1024 nodes were created with Figure 3.3 showing the breakdown of nodes created using the line-by-line process.

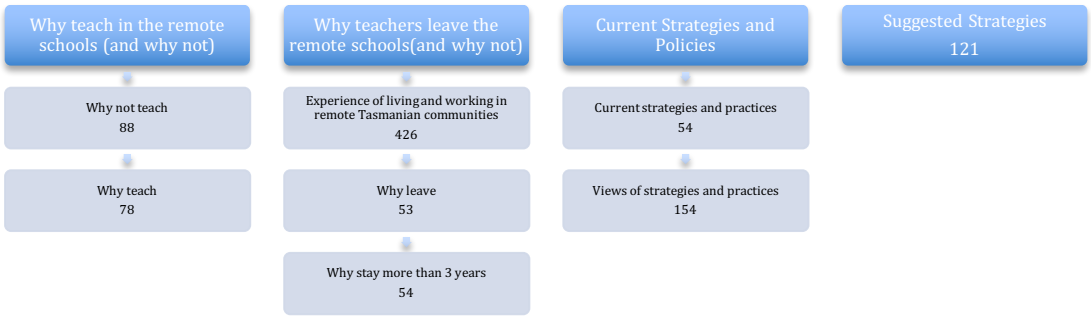

Figure 3.3. The initial number of nodes created as a result of line-by-line coding.

3.7.1.4 Focused Coding

After the references in the questions were coded using the line-by-line approach, the second level of open coding, focused coding commenced. Focused coding involved using the most significant or frequently used codes in line-by-line coding to sift through the large amount of data. As Charmaz (2006) stated, "… focused coding is more directed, selective and conceptual than line by line coding" (p. 96). Focused coding moved the focus from the individual interviews to the line-by-line codes. As described by Lawrence and Tar (2013), the line-by-line codes were constantly compared with other line-by-line codes and where similar constructs were identified, combined to create a category. The emerging categories were the beginnings of the conceptual categories.

3.7.1.5 Developing Conceptual Categories

Lawrence and Tar (2013) described two analytical processes that take place during the focused coding process in order to develop these categories into conceptual categories. These processes are, constant comparison, and theoretical sampling. This involved constantly

comparing the data in order to develop and clearly define each category as well integrate literature into each category. Other than clearly defining the categories, these two processes are necessary in order to explain their properties, clarify their causes, provide the conditions for when they arise, and state their consequences. During this process, I compared the data from different homogeneous groups in order to give depth to the descriptions as well as to identify commonalties and differences between the groups. One of the functions provided in NVivo is the ability to create memos. This function was utilised for the theoretical sampling part of the analytical process. The way memos were used in this is described in the following section.

3.7.1.6 Memo Writing

As suggested by Lawrence and Tar (2013) each memo for a conceptual category included: a conceptual definition, a narrative of each category and examples from the raw data. Including raw data in memos to provide evidence to support the category (Charmaz, 2006). Each narrative included: a general explanation of the properties or characteristics of the category; clarification of possible causes; conditions for when they exist; a description of the possible consequences; as well as how the conceptual category related to other conceptual categories. Explaining the conceptual category in this way allowed me to delve deeper into what the category actually included but also what it didn't include.

3.7.1.7 Emerging Theories

Memo writing formed the basis of my emerging theories. To go beyond a conceptual category or an emerging theory, further sampling or theoretical sampling is required (Charmaz, 2006; Cohen et al., 2011). Theoretical sampling provides more data to confirm the category accurately and supports in describing the participant's experiences and/or understandings (Charmaz, 2006). Theoretical sampling enables the meaning of the category to be elaborated and gaps between the categories to be identified (Charmaz, 2006). The

implication of theoretical sampling is that it continues until the categories are saturated, that is, when data no longer provides new insights (Charmaz, 2006; Cohen et al., 2011). The difficulty is proving that saturation has been achieved (Charmaz, 2006).The emerging theories are supported with raw data as well as with support from the literature. Providing interview quotations within the emerging theory kept the human story at the forefront of the analysis as recommended by Charmaz (2006).

3.7.2 Descriptive Statistics

Questionnaire data were presented in tables following the analysis using descriptive statistics. One section of the questionnaire required respondents to choose between 'influential' or 'not influential'. A frequencies analysis was undertaken on this data to determine the number and percentage of respondents who selected 'influential'.

The majority of questionnaire responses required the respondent to select options using a five point Likert-type scale. Options evaluating 'effectiveness' were rated from 1 (very ineffective) to 5 (very effective) and those that were evaluating 'likeliness' were rated from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). Using descriptive statistics enabled the reduction of questionnaire data to understandable terms. The data produced from the Likert-type scale were presented in tables. As stated in Section 3.6.2, the items were based on those used by Roberts (2004), with the exact wording used as table names. The tables show means and standard deviations. Burns (2000) described the mean as "…the only measure that reflects the influence of all scores in the distribution." (p.44). According to Burns (2000), the standard deviation is the most important measure because it reflects the amount of spread around the means. Three types of analysis were undertaken on the Likert-type data using SPSS Statistics: a frequencies analysis to produce the mean and standard variation for each of the participant groups. Oneway ANOVAs with Tukey HSD post hocs were used to identify differences in mean responses between groups.

3.7.3 Typology

Initial analysis of the data focused on analysing the qualitative and quantitative data separately based on the QUAL + quan design as described by Morse et al. (2006). The analysis of the data was extended further by combining the quantitative and qualitative data to provide a typology of teachers as a means to categorise teachers who choose to teach in remote areas, leave remote areas, and teachers who stay. Not every type was exemplified by an individual participant, some were created from comments of community members. The typologies are provided in conjunction with the data as a means of identifying the context and the causal determination. As stated in Section 2.7, Herrington and Herrington (2001) noted there is limited research in the area of teacher retention in remote areas.

Bruun and Whimster (2012) in their translation of the works by Max Weber, stated typology provided the idea of the type, or the idea of the norm, or what ought to be, and the ideal type is an attempt to comprehend individual traits by using characteristic concepts. Types are not a depiction of reality, nor can they be observed in reality (Bruun & Whimster, 2012). They are a mental image against which reality is measured and compared in order to provide context, causal determination, and the significance of the phenomenon (Bruun & Whimster, 2012). They further stated types are not a hypothesis but guide the development of a hypothesis. The ideal type is a theoretical construction used to measure and systematically characterise relationships that are individual or unique (Bruun & Whimster, 2012). The aim of forming ideal types is to identify what is distinctive, and not what is generic in phenomenon (Bruun & Whimster, 2012).

The four stages of type construction as described by Kluge (2000) guided the construction of the types presented in this study. The first stage involved the development of relevant analysing dimensions (Kluge, 2000) or the identification of types according to a combination of attributes, including recognising the similarities and differences between the

variables (e.g. people, groups, behaviour etc.). These identified groups were then described. The initial descriptions were vague with only one or two sentences. A generalised or temporary 'type' label was identified. At this stage of analysis there were 22 'types'.

The second stage involved grouping the emerging types and analysing their properties. The data of the different emerging types were compared to each other. Firstly, the data within each 'type' was compared to check they were as similar as possible, and secondly, to check the differences between the 'types' to ensure there was enough differences and variation in the data.

The third stage involved what Kluge (2000) referred to as the analysis of meaningful relationships and type construction. In order to fully understand and explain the social phenomena, continued comparisons between the 'types' was undertaken in order to identify relationships between them. At this stage, there is usually a reduction in the number of types or the construction of new ones (Kluge, 2000). The number of types in this study was reduced to nine with an additional type constructed.

In the fourth and final stage of type construction, characterisation of the constructed types, involves describing the types more extensively to include their attributes and relationships. At this stage, the criterion of the type is stated. For all types in this study they were identified as 'ideal types'. The extended descriptions of the types constructed in this study are provided in Chapter 5 Section 5.5.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

This study was guided by the ethical guidelines provided in the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2007). Prior to the commencement of this study formal ethics approval, and consent from gatekeepers was gained (see Appendix K and Appendix L). As this study used a mixed

method design (see Section 3.5) ethical considerations for qualitative and quantitative research was required. These included: informed consent, provided confidentiality and anonymity, gained interview, and questionnaire consent. Participants were treated with respect at all times, and participation was entirely voluntary. Participants had the right to refuse to answer any interview questions, and could withdraw from the study at any time.

The following sections discuss the ethical considerations addressed in this study.

3.8.1 Formal Ethics Approval

Formal ethics approval was sought from the Social Science Human Resource Ethics Committee before the data collection for this study commenced. On the 30th May 2014, the Ethics Committee provided the approval to conduct this project (Ethics Ref: H0014097). A copy of the official letter is in Appendix L.

3.8.2 Consent of a Gatekeeper

In regard to including current employees of the Department of Education, Tasmania, approval was sought from the representative gatekeeper, Educational Performance Services. On the 6th August 2014, approval was provided to "proceed at a general level" (File: 2014-23). A copy of the official letter is in Appendix K.

3.8.3 Informed Consent

Cohen et al. (2011) considered informed consent to be the "cornerstone of ethical behaviour" (p. 77). Informed consent can only be provided if participants are actually informed of their complete involvement (O'Leary, 2009). Consent has four elements, being: competent, voluntary, fully informed, and able to comprehend. Being competent implies the participant, given the correct information, is able to make the correct decision. Being voluntary is the right of the individual to freely choose to participate or not to participate. Being fully informed implies that all the information pertaining to the research has been

provided to the participants. Being able to comprehend implies the participant understands to nature of the research (Cohen et al., 2011).

Participants in this study were provided with an information sheet (see Appendix M). The information sheet included: the purpose of the research, who was conducting the study, and why. It contained a rationale for the invitation to participate, and what participants would be required to do. The information sheet included an approximate time commitment that participation would require. A transcript would be sent to participants to ensure that it represented their intended contribution to the data. The information sheet highlighted that their participation was voluntary and they had a right to discontinue participating in the research without explanation or consequence as well as the right to request their data be excluded from the final report. As Cohen et al. (2011) stated, "…informed consent implies informed refusal" (p. 78). The information sheet was included with the letter of invitation for interview participants, and included as an attachment to emailed letters of invitation for questionnaire participants.

3.8.4 Ensuring Confidentiality and Anonymity

The information sheet included a statement of confidentiality and acknowledged the potential of other participants disclosing content following group interviews. It noted that individuals would not be identified in the reporting of this study. The information sheet informed potential participants where and how the raw data would be stored and after what timeframe it would be destroyed. The use of pseudonyms for interview participants and codes for interview participants was crucial for maintaining anonymity.

3.8.5 Interview Consent

A consent form was included with the information sheet (see Appendix N). The consent form included statements declaring understanding of the ethical considerations

addressed in the information sheet. Individuals wishing to participate in this study were asked to return the signed form in an included stamped, self-addressed envelope.

3.8.6 Questionnaire Consent

After reading the information sheet attached to the questionnaire, participants were provided with a consent statement summarising the information sheet (see Appendices B, C, D and E). Choosing an 'agree' radio button opened the questionnaire.

3.8.7 Data Storage

During the study, data were stored on a password protected computer with a backup copy stored on a password protected hard drive. At the completion of the study all data were stored in a locked filing cabinet or on a password protected computer hard-drive within the UTAS Faculty of Education, Newnham Campus. Hardcopies of all data will be destroyed by shredding after five years of the project's completion and all electronic data will be securely deleted.

3.9 Summary of Chapter 3

This chapter focused on the approach or methodology used in this study. It was organised into seven sections. Section 3.2, presented the research design. Section 3.3 described the constructivist epistemology underpinning this study with Section 3.4 presenting the interpretivist theoretical perspective. Section 3.5 discussed an embedded mixed method within a transformative design that was driven by a constructivist epistemological stance within an interpretivist approach as the methodology used in this study as well as the justification for the chosen methodology. Section 3.6, discussed the participants, instruments and procedures used for data collection. Section 3.7, described the use of constructivist grounded theory, descriptive statistics and typology for data analysis. Section 3.8, addressed

the ethical issues that needed to be considered during the research and the final section, Section 3.8, addressed the ethical issues that needed to be considered during the research.

Chapter 4 presents the results and discussion for the first research question:

Why do teachers choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

Chapter 4

Results and Discussion: Why do Teachers Choose to Teach in Department of Education Schools in Remote Tasmanian Communities?

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports and discusses the results of data analysis from the interviews, questionnaires and written responses from all participant groups in relation to the first research question. The research aimed to examine stakeholders' perceptions for possible ways of attracting teachers to and retaining them at four remote government schools in Tasmania, Australia. The results are divided into two parts to address the research question:

-Why do teachers choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

First, 'Why teachers choose to teach in remote Tasmanian communities?' is addressed in and Section 4.2, and then, 'Why teachers choose not to teach in remote Tasmanian communities?' is addressed in Section 4.3. In Section 4.4, the findings are discussed and Section 4.5, provides a summary of the chapter.

Excerpts from interview transcripts have been edited to ensure anonymity of the participants and their communities. Editing the excerpts has involved replacing place names with pseudonyms, replacing the name of the region with a generic reference to remote communities, removing words such as 'um' and 'ahh', making grammatical adjustments to the original transcripts, and deleting sections of repetition. The meanings conveyed by the participants have not been changed or distorted but, as Hatch (2002) suggested, it has enabled the excerpts to be more manageable.

The themes generated from the combined interview data and relevant qualitative data from the open responses on questionnaires are integrated with each theme. Additional qualitative data that do not directly relate to a theme are provided in Sections 4.3.8, and 4.3.9.

The terms 'past teachers' and '2015 teachers' are used and include any participating principals in the respective groups. Each theme is discussed, highlighting the importance of the findings, and noting similarities to differences from findings in the literature. As stated in Section 3.8.4, pseudonyms have been used for interview participants and codes for questionnaire respondents.

Personal reflections of my own experiences teaching in the remote communities relevant to the theme, have been included and are italicised.

4.2 Why do Teachers Choose to Teach in Department of Education Schools in Remote Tasmanian Communities?

The responses to this question related to three themes. These are presented in order of most frequently identified: employment, incentives, and connections to the remote communities. Section 4.2.1, includes seven sub-themes concerning the influence of employment on teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities and Section 4.2.2, discusses the incentives that influenced their decision. Section 4.2.3, describes two sub-themes related to having connections to the communities. Quantitative data from the questionnaires concerning factors that were influential in the initial decision to teach in a remote community that does not correspond to a theme, are reported in Section 4.2.4.

4.2.1 Employment

Ten interviews and one written response included employment as a reason for teaching in a Department of Education (DoE) school in a Tasmanian remote community. Employment has been divided into seven sub-themes which are reported in order of most frequently mentioned to least frequently mentioned.

4.2.1.1 Opportunity for Employment

Four community members believed teachers chose to teach in a remote community for employment purposes. Collectively they recognised: positions were available in remote communities; for some teachers, it was a means of getting their first teaching position; and some teachers were unable to get a position in the town they wanted. One community participant stated, “Probably unfortunately we get a lot of people here because they are unable to get work elsewhere.” (Danelle). Two past teachers supported the perceptions of the four community members about some teachers accepting teaching positions in remote communities as a means of getting their first job, the availability of positions in remote

communities and not being able to get a position in the area they wanted, Emma said, “At that time there weren’t many positions at all that were available on the North West Coast.” A 2015 teacher noted that the opportunity for full-time employment was the drawcard for him deciding to work in a remote community.

In the questionnaires for past teachers, and 2015 teachers, participants were provided with several criteria that might have been influential in their initial decision to teach in a remote school. One criterion was ‘job availability. Ten (63%) of past teacher participants, and 7 (49%) of 2015 teacher respondents, indicated that they were influenced by the opportunity of employment for accepting a position in a remote school.

Getting an employment contract was provided as a reason by a community participant for teachers choosing to teach in a remote school. Heath said, “I've always had the understanding though they want to come here, to get a contract.” A past teacher supported this saying she was initially offered a 12-month contract in a remote school. A 2015 teacher likewise indicated that a contract provided a reason for working in a remote community. Wade said, “It was still a contract, but the contract was, even though it was term-by-term, it was for the year.”

A past teacher, Jacki, stated that undertaking relief teaching in her home area for a number of years, or undertaking numerous short-term contracts was not an option for her, so she was prepared to go to the remote community for continuous employment. A 2015 teacher mentioned that he had done relief teaching in his home area but the opportunity for continuous employment in a remote community arose, so he accepted it.

4.2.1.2 Actively Choosing to Teach in a Remote Community

Four community members believed some teachers actively chose to go to the remote community. Frank said, “There are a few that choose but I think they’re the minority.” One

community participant, Cindy, noted that some teachers chose to go to the remote community because, "…they're a bit more open minded and they do see it as a unique experience."

4.2.1.3 Permanent Employment

Two past teachers provided having a permanent position as a reason for teaching in a remote community. One participant mentioned accepting permanency in one of the remote schools a number of times throughout the interview. Jacki commented, in relation to her goal of achieving permanence, "I was lining up my ducks and going to the remote community was the fastest way to achieve that." Jacki had made plans for her future, she wanted permanency, she wanted to buy a house, and she wanted to raise a family. For Jacki, buying a house and raising a family required job security and a guaranteed income and getting permanency was the best way to do this. Jacki was aware that permanency was more regularly offered in the remote Tasmanian schools and so she was prepared to undertake teaching in the remote area in order to achieve her long-term plans.

Permanency was a criterion provided in the questionnaire. Ten (63%) of past teacher participants were influenced by permanency for accepting a position in a remote school, whereas 3 (21%) of 2015 teachers who responded to the questionnaire were influenced by permanency. There are not enough participants in the 2015 teacher group to suggest the influence of permanency for accepting a position in a remote school has become less of a motivator. It does suggest permanency continues to be a motivator for some teachers.

4.2.1.4 Sent to a Remote Community

Being sent to a remote community alluded to that participant's view that teachers were choosing between employment or unemployment. Three community members expressed the belief that teachers were sent to the remote communities. For example, Frank said, "Generally most of the ones that I've spoken to go there because they're sent there not because they're actually choosing to go there." Consistent with this, three of the 29

questionnaire respondents indicated they went to the remote community as a result of a DoE placement. Two past teachers and a 2015 teacher asserted that they accepted a position in a remote community as a result of a DoE placement.

4.2.2 Incentives for Teaching in a Remote Community

This section details the incentives participants identified as reasons for which teachers chose to teach in a remote Tasmanian community. The different types of incentives are provided in order of most to least frequently discussed in the following sections.

4.2.2.1 Future Placement

Six community participants were of the view that teachers chose to teach in the remote community in order to improve their prospects for a future placement in a location of their choice. Bianca said, "…they come here, do like their 3 years and then they are entitled to go wherever they want to go to." Jacki, a past teacher, had a choice of a teaching position in a remote community (290km from her home area) or another position that was not remote, but was 300km from her home area. The school that was 300km from her home area was a preferred school because it was not in a Tasmanian DoE identified isolated area and therefore she would not be considered for an eligible priority service transfer (see Section 6.5.1). Jacki chose the remote position as it provided her with the opportunity to transfer to her home area the following year because she had already completed 2 years in a different remote school. Jacki said, "I got in writing that if did one more year, then if I chose, I'd be eligible to transfer to Bowen."

Accepting a position in a remote community in order to gain a future teaching position in a preferred location was considered influential by almost 40% of questionnaire participants. One option provided in the questionnaire was the initial influence of a priority transfer after completing 3 years. Seven (44%) of past teacher participants indicated they

were influenced by having a priority transfer after completing 3 years whereas only 4 (29%) of 2015 teacher respondents chose this option.

4.2.2.2 Financial Advantages

A perception of three community members was that teachers chose to teach in the remote community for financial gain. Meg commented, "…teachers receive an isolation allowance and teachers can save on accommodation as teacher accommodation provided is cheaper than living in a town where one needs to find their own accommodation (other than living at home)."

None of the interview participants mentioned the isolation allowance (see Section 6.2.2) as influential in their initial decision to teach in a remote community. Three of the 29 questionnaire respondents rated this as influential. A past teacher commented on the ability to save money while living cheaply in a Department house. The provision of having a rent subsidy influenced a quarter, or 4, of the past teacher respondents and 21% (3), of the 2015 teacher questionnaire participants when deciding to teach in a remote community.

4.2.2.3 Career Advantages

Five community participants thought teachers used the remote community as a stepping-stone to further their careers and to provide better opportunities in the future. Meg thought that teaching in the remote community would, "…help them gain a promotion in another school in another area in the future."

Teachers did not mention using remote communities for future career advantages at the completion of their tenure but some acknowledged that they could further their career by gaining a promotable position in a remote school. Cathy mentioned applying for the principal position because it was a promotion, "I thought, mmm why don't I go for it. So, I thought, ok, so I went for the job." Four of the questionnaire participants had gained a promoted position in one of the remote communities. Cathy had previously worked in the remote

community and had chosen to return in a promoted position. Questionnaire participants in promoted positions had 13 – 26 years experience prior to working in the remote communities. This suggests offering promotable positions encourages experienced teachers to work in remote communities.

4.2.2.4 Scholarship

A past teacher indicated that she accepted a teaching position in a remote community because she and her husband both received a scholarship to work in a remote community. According to the participant, the scholarship provided them guaranteed permanency after completing 3-years' service. In addition, there were financial incentives including cheap rent. In the interview Kelli stated, "If it wasn't for that scholarship there was no way that we would've moved to the remote community." Kelli was the only participant who had received a scholarship. Therefore, the success of providing scholarships for attracting or retaining teachers to work in the remote region may have been limited, although Kelli and her husband remained there for 8 ½ years.

4.2.3 Connections to the Remote Communities

This section focuses on teachers who chose to teach in a DoE school because they had a connection to the remote communities. The connection could relate to their partner or family member already having employment there, or that they were originally from the area and still had some family members living there. These two forms of connection to the communities are discussed in turn in the following sub-sections.

4.2.3.1 Family Member Employed in the Remote Communities

One community member stated that she was aware of teachers who had gone to the remote community as married couples and an interview participant said she and her teacher husband had gone to the remote community together because they had both received a scholarship (see Section 4.2.2.4). Having a family member already employed in the remote

community was another reason for choosing to teach in the community. Cathy, a past teacher stated she and another teacher had gone to the community due to their husbands' employment, "We had one teacher …she went down for the same reason as me, because her husband worked in the community."

Of these, the number of consecutive years in the region of the four 2015 participants varied, with one in her first year in the region, and the others had been there 5, 10, and 15 years respectively. The two past teachers who were influenced by having a spouse or partner already employed in the remote community spent four and nine consecutive years in the region. It may be that the past teachers no longer teach in the remote region because their partner or spouse no longer works there either. Although there were only six participants initially influenced by having a spouse or partner already employed in the remote community, five of the six had stayed longer than 3 years. Having a partner or spouse employed in the remote Tasmanian communities, appeared to support the retention of teachers.

4.2.3.2 Originally from the Remote Community

Three community members recognised that some teachers who chose to teach in the community were returning home, Heath said, "Every now and then you get a couple of teachers that actually do come from the region. There are examples here, so they come because of family."

Fourteen percent of the questionnaire participants were originally from the remote community. Three questionnaire participants had family members living in the remote community at the time of accepting a position in the remote school. It is not clear whether these include spouses/partners employed and living in the remote communities.

4.2.4 Additional Influences on the Initial Decision to Teach in a Remote School

Quantitative data relating to the social factors suggested in the questionnaires, including data that did not arise in interviews, are provided in this section. These are presented in order of the total number of teachers citing a given reason for teaching in a remote community. As stated in Section 3.7.2, this section of the questionnaire required participants to select 'influential' or 'not influential'. The data presented provide the numbers and percentages of past teachers and 2015 teachers who were influenced by each option when choosing to teach in a DoE school in a Tasmanian remote community. Social factors are presented in Table 4.1 in order of the total number of teachers indicating the factor was influential in their initial choice to teach in a remote school.

Table 4.1

Additional Social Factors as Incentives for Teaching in a Remote School

Factor	Past Teacher	2015 Teacher
Previously lived in a remote area	3 (19%)	5 (36%)
Spouse/partner employment*	2 (12.5%)	4 (28.6%)
Previously lived in the region*	3 (18.8%)	3 (21.4%)
Family connections*	1 (6.3%)	2 (14.3%)
Lifestyle change	2 (12%)	1 (7%)
Completed a professional experience in the remote community	0	2 (14%)
Small class sizes	1 (6%)	0

Note: Social Factors (*) were discussed in interviews

Although there were small numbers of teacher respondents who were influenced by the factors listed in Table 4.1 the data suggest that these factors do have some influence on some teachers.

4.2.4.1 Other Reasons Provided

The questionnaire provided an opportunity for respondents to describe additional reasons beyond those in the options as influential in their initial decision for choosing to

teach in the remote community. A past teacher, PT2, stated she was provided with a compassionate transfer (for further explanation see Appendix O) to the remote community and one of the 2015 teachers, CT8, noted, "I was encouraged to go there by the previous principal after returning to TAS after 2 years working in remote NT. She convinced me that the students could benefit from both my literacy and special needs skill set."

This section reported reasons for which teachers choose to teach in the four remote communities of Tasmania. The next section, Section 4.3, reports reasons for whch teachers might choose not to teach in the remote Tasmanian communities.

4.3 Why Teachers Might Not Choose to Teach in Department of Education Schools in Remote Tasmanian Communities?

As stated in Section 4.2, the first research question: 'Why do teachers choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?' was divided into two parts. This section will focus on the second part, 'Why teachers might not choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?'

Themes or topics generated from the qualitative data are presented first, followed by the quantitative data, either supporting or contradicting the findings. The interviews revealed a number of reasons for which teachers might choose not to teach in the remote communities. Each of these is reported from Section 4.3.1 to Section 4.3.7.

The questionnaires initially required respondents to indicate: 'How likely do the following social factors act as disincentives for teaching in a remote school?' on Likert scales from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). As stated in Section 3.7.2, unless otherwise indicated, there was no difference in the mean response according to participant type.

Additional quantitative data from the questionnaires of social factors and professional issues that might deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities (due to the options provided in the questionnaires) have been provided in Sections 4.3.8, and 4.3.9. The additional data are presented in tables in order of the mean level of support from participants as to whether the options would serve as a disincentive for teaching in the remote communities. The first section discusses concerns about living in the remote communities, as a reason for which teachers might choose not to teach in the remote communities.

4.3.1 Concerns About Living in the Remote Communities

This section focuses on the concerns about living in the remote communities' that teachers might have for not choosing to teach in a remote Tasmanian DoE school. There are four sub-sections in this section, presented in order of most to least frequently discussed: access to facilities and services, limited social and cultural activities, additional costs, and community life.

When addressing possible reasons for which teachers may be deterred from teaching in the remote communities, five community participants collectively identified concerns regarding: access to medical services (including hospital), limited phone service, access to special needs services, and limited facilities for families. In an open-response section of the questionnaire, a 2015 teacher mentioned health services as a deterrent for why teachers may not choose to teach in the remote communities and a past teacher, PT4, mentioned, "limited services".

Concerns about the lack of health facilities and phone service raised by community participants, were included as options under 'social factors that might act as deterrents for why teachers may not choose to teach in the remote communities'. Table 4.2 shows that on average, respondents believed that limited access to health services would likely deter teachers from choosing to teach in the remote communities. As mentioned, another concern

raised by the community members was, unreliable phone service. Table 4.2 also shows there was a significant difference in the mean response of pre-service teachers (PSTs) (M=4.11), and 2015 teachers (M=3.00), [$F(2, 43)=4.23$, $p<0.05$] to the item 'Unreliable Technology (e.g. phones, power, internet)', with PSTs agreeing more strongly on average, than 2015 teachers, that this would contribute to deterring teachers from choosing to teach in the remote communities. Two community participants mentioned that some teachers may need access for special needs and another mentioned some teachers might need facilities for families. Without those available in the remote communities it may deter teachers from choosing to teach in the schools.

Seven community participants discussed the limited or, "lack of recreational and cultural activities" (Gina). Access to music, ballet, dancing, along with the sporting opportunities were mentioned. Peter stated, "…you don't have all these luxuries of being in the big cities so you actually have to do a lot of stuff by yourself." Two 2015 teachers, who responded to an open section on the questionnaire, mentioned the limited opportunities to socialise, with one of them mentioning lack of access to sport as a possible deterrent to teaching in the remote communities. Table 4.2 shows in order, the social factors that might be considered as disincentives for teaching in remote communities. Of the provided factors, the table shows that on average, respondents were undecided as to whether the limited access to cultural activities, and the loss of privacy, would be a deterrent for teachers to choose to work in the remote communities.

Table 4.2

Social Factors as Disincentives for Living in Remote Communities

Social Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Distance from Major Centres (e.g. Williamstown, Brady, Bowen)	Past Teacher	15	4.40	.91
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.63
	PST	18	4.11	.90
	Total	46	4.26	.83
Access to Services (e.g. Healthcare etc.)	Past Teacher	15	4.27	.80
	2015 Teacher	13	4.08	1.04
	PST	18	4.00	1.03
	Total	46	4.11	.95
Limited Access to Cultural Activities (e.g. cinema, sports)	Past Teacher	15	4.00	.76
	2015 Teacher	13	3.92	.76
	PST	18	3.83	.99
	Total	46	3.91	.84
Raising Children in a Remote Area	Past Teacher	15	3.93	1.10
	2015 Teacher	13	3.69	1.03
	PST	18	3.50	1.20
	Total	46	3.70	1.11
Unreliable Technology (e.g. phones, power, internet)	Past Teacher	15	3.27	1.28
	2015 Teacher	13	3.00	1.08
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	4.11	1.02
	Total	46	3.52	1.21
Uncertainty about Socialisation into the Community	Past Teacher	15	3.67	1.18
	2015 Teacher	13	3.15	.90
	PST	18	3.39	1.15
	Total	46	3.41	1.09
Cost of Living	Past Teacher	15	3.67	.90
	2015 Teacher	13	3.15	1.14
	PST	18	2.89	1.13
	Total	46	3.22	1.09
Loss of Privacy Living in a Small Town	Past Teacher	15	3.73	1.03
	2015 Teacher	13	3.15	1.07
	PST	18	2.83	1.34
	Total	46	3.22	1.21

Three community members mentioned costs that are involved in living in the remote communities. These included the cost in time for travelling to and from the region as well as the cost of food and fuel. In an open-ended section of the questionnaire a 2015 teacher, CT10, mentioned, “Cost of living, particularly if a home owner elsewhere.” and a past teacher, PT4, who responded to an open-ended section of a questionnaire mentioned the “Cost of basic living expenses higher, e.g. food, petrol.” Table 4.2 shows that on average, respondents believed that distance from major centres might likely deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities. These responses are consistent with the views of the four community participants who recognised that distance from family and friends might deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities (see Section 4.3.2). The cost of food and fuel was mentioned by community members as a deterrent for teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities. Table 4.2 shows that on average, respondents were undecided whether cost of living might be a deterrent for teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities.

Three community participants mentioned community life as a deterrent for teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities. One mentioned the loss of anonymity, another mentioned the difficulty of feeling accepted and trying to mix with the community. A third participant mentioned having a fear of the lack of support. A 2015 teacher, CT7, responded to an open-ended section of the questionnaire based on her own perceptions that, “Crime rates and attitudes to domestic violence and disharmony in the community” could be a possible deterrent. One of the options on the questionnaire under ‘social factors’ required respondents to consider whether the prospect raising children in a remote community might be considered a disincentive for teaching in the remote communities. Respondents were provided with an open-ended section to add their own comments about social factors that might act as disincentives. In response, a past teacher, PT11, stated, “The social factors more than employment factors have a large say in people staying in the area. As soon as I start to think

of raising my family in the area, there is no way I would return to teach in the remote community." He did not state why. As previously stated in this section, one of the community participants mentioned there were limited facilities for families, which might explain why PT11 would not return to raise his family in the remote community. Wanita commented on the negative perception of the schools in the community impacting on teachers' decisions not to teach in the community. These negative perceptions might deter teachers from having their own children attend these schools. Jacki's plan was to return to Bowen to raise her family rather than raise her family in the remote community (see Section 4.2.1.3). Cathy left the remote community where she was principal at the primary school because of her daughter's education. Cathy explained that the local high school did not offer the subjects her daughter wanted to do.

Raising children in the remote communities was included in the questionnaire as a social factor that might act as a disincentive for teachers to teach in the remote communities. Table 4.2 shows that, on average, respondents were undecided as to the extent to which these factors would be deterrents for teachers to choose to work in the remote communities.

4.3.2 Family and Friends

This section relates to concerns about family and friends as deterrents for teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities with two identified sub-themes: not wanting to leave family and friends, and employment opportunities for spouse/partner.

Four community members recognised that the distance from family, friends and support might deter some teachers from teaching in the remote communities. A questionnaire participant who was teaching in a remote community at the time of this study mentioned that the distance from family and friends might act as a deterrent for teaching in the remote communities. Adam, a PST educator at UTAS (TE), referred to a similar issue when he described where PSTs saw themselves working after graduation, "So if they've come from

the North West Coast then a lot of them see themselves going back to the North West Coast if a lot of them come from Bowen, woof, that's it." The PST who agreed to be interviewed explained that due to family and personal circumstances she could not consider accepting a teaching position in the remote communities. Family and friends as potential social factors that might deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities were presented as two separate options in the questionnaires completed by teachers and PSTs: isolation from family, and isolation from friends. Table 4.3 shows on average, respondents considered it likely that isolation from family and friends would deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities. Interestingly, on average, teachers in the remote communities and PSTs considered living away from friends slightly more of a deterrent than living away from family.

A community participant stated that limited employment opportunities for spouses or partners might deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities. Similarly, a PST, PST6, commented in the questionnaire, "Attracting a couple is more difficult as you need to have employment for both adults." The questionnaire included an option regarding employment opportunities for a non-teaching spouse/partner as a deterrent for teaching in the remote communities. Table 4.3 shows that on average, respondents considered that employment opportunities for non-teaching spouse/partner might likely deter teachers from not teaching in the remote communities. Other than not having employment for a spouse or partner as a deterrent for choosing to teach in the remote communities, a current teacher, CT10, mentioned, "family opportunities for spouse and/or children" as a disincentive for teaching in the remote communities.

Table 4.3

Social Factors as Disincentives for Teaching in the Remote Communities: Family and Friends

Social Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Isolation from Family	Past Teacher	15	4.87	.35
	2015 Teacher	13	4.46	.78
	PST	18	4.61	.61
	Total	46	4.65	.60
Isolation from Friends	Past Teacher	15	4.67	.49
	2015 Teacher	13	4.62	.65
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	4.67	.59
	Total	46	4.65	.57
Employment Opportunities for Non-Teaching Spouse/Partner	Past Teacher	15	4.47	.64
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	.83
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	4.28	1.27
	Total	46	4.33	.97

4.3.3 Geographical Location

In this section references to isolation in terms of location, the weather and driving conditions in and out of, and between the remote communities are addressed. Isolation is broken into sub-themes of: geographical location, distance from family and friends, and living away from family and friends. When community participants were asked why they thought teachers might choose not to teach in the remote communities, every interview and both written submissions included references to isolation. In total, nine participants noted isolation as a deterrent for teaching in the remote communities. The community participants referred to isolation in relation to the geographical location of the communities. They also used the term remoteness. Some of the interviewees gave this as the first reason for which teachers chose not to teach in the remote communities, Warren said, “First one is isolation.”

Two community representatives spoke of the isolation as a perception rather than the reality. Nicolas related this to past circumstances:

> …isolation is not as bad as what it was, that's a fallacy, isolation. I mean 30 years ago 40 years ago it was it was perceived as that but now we aren't isolated. It's just that perception that people portray us as.

Table 4.2 in Section 4.3.1, and Table 4.3 in Section 4.3.2, show that teachers and PSTs considered distance from the major centres, and isolation from family and friends, likely to be deterrents from teaching in the remote communities. Even though two community participants believed it to be a fallacy or perception, for most participants it was their reality.

Nicolas related his experience and knowledge of the remote community to how it was decades earlier, up until the 1960's, when the highway was built, the only access to Williamstown (120km) was by train. For Nicolas, improved access to and from the community meant it was no longer isolated. However, young teachers live in a world where technology has allowed for the 'instant' or the 'immediate' the time it takes to drive to the communities, and how far away they are from urban centres, deems them remote. The difference between perception and reality is influenced by personal experience. Nicholas constructed his reality of isolation based on his experiences of how difficult it used to be to travel from the remote communities, whereas teachers who might not have been to the remote communities might perceive then as isolated based on their location and distance from urban centres.

Five community participants mentioned the weather as a deterrent for teaching in the remote communities. In Section 5.4.3.3, three past teachers mentioned that the weather was an issue for them whilst living in the remote communities. It was not mentioned by 2015 teachers, or PSTs, as a deterrent to teaching there.

Three community participants commented on the driving conditions or the distance required to travel, Warren said, "it's a very isolated long way to major centres". Table 4.2 in Section 4.3.1, showed that on average questionnaire participants regarded distance from

major centres as 'likely' to deter teachers from the remote community. One of the community participants mentioned being snowed in, or driving in the snow as a possible concern for some people. *I preferred not to drive in the snow, choosing to stay in the remote community for weekends (and occasionally the winter school holidays). There were a few occasions driving in the snow was required to attend principal meetings. This often entailed travelling between 20 and 40km per hour for lengthy distances resulting in a trip that took 90 minutes in the summer taking an additional 60 – 90 minutes in the winter. If it happened to be snowing during the drive, the visibility was very poor. There were occasions of being snowed in or out when roads were closed.*

4.3.4 Stereotypes of the Remote Communities

This section details the concerns related to stereotypes of the remote communities including words such as 'reputation', 'negative publicity', 'perception' and 'negative comments' used by participants.

Nine community participants spoke of the negative reputation the communities had outside of the region as a reason for which some teachers chose not to teach in the remote communities. Seven participants commented on the perception of the remote communities, two commented on the reputation of the remote communities, and two mentioned negative publicity the remote communities had via the media. A further two participants mentioned teachers being influenced by negative word of mouth – particularly from other teachers. Perry commented, "Suppose what they hear from other teachers that have been here before about some of the conditions and what you know what the other teachers have thought of the conditions". Three comments were made about stereotypes of the remote communities, Warren stated:

> …it's a fear, it's just a town of an area of rednecks that will you know rather a fight than a feed and you know, it's just not that, that is not what it is, as we all know, but how do you get that message out?

He further commented, "…if they think they're going to live in Hicksville then they won't want to come here." Wanita, a community participant spoke of the reputation of the actual schools on remote communities, "I do think in previous years some of the schools have kind of developed a bad rap whether fair or not." This perception or stereotype of the remote communities might be influential in teachers choosing not to raise a family there. Another community participant spoke about the schools making reference to the socio-economic status of the families in the remote communities.

A past teacher, Jacki, was advised by colleagues already in the region, not to accept a remote school appointment but to accept an alternative appointment outside of it. The leader in the remote school advised her against accepting the position, not because of the community, but because of the school environment. Jacki said, "Eliza called me and suggested I didn't take the position. Eliza told me that Montana was a toxic environment that the staff were very bitchy and very cliquey and that she didn't recommend I take the position."

One of the items in the questionnaire for was, 'Negative Images and Publicity Regarding Living in the Remote Communities'. There had been a number of news media articles published at the time of this study focusing on the four remote communities. The topics ranged from deaths of miners, mine closures, closure of a major tourist attraction, river pollution, lead found in the water supply, and bushfires threatening the communities. In spite of the media attention the remote communities were receiving, Table 4.4 shows that on average, respondents were undecided as to whether negative images and publicity regarding

living in the remote communities would deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities.

Table 4.4

Social Factors as Disincentives for Teaching in the Remote Communities: Negative Images and Publicity Regarding Living in the Remote Communities

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	15	3.60	.99
2015 Teacher	13	3.54	1.39
Pre-Service Teacher	18	2.83	1.04
Total	46	3.28	1.17

The data from the questionnaires included positive perceptions of living in remote communities that may be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. Table 4.5 shows that on average, respondents were undecided whether perceptions of remote communities as good places to raise children, having a low crime rate, or providing a quiet lifestyle would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. Table 4.5 also shows there was a significant difference in mean responses of past teachers (M=2.94), and 2015 teachers (M=3.77), [$F(2, 45)=3.23$, $p<0.05$] to the item 'Living in a Smaller Community', with 2015 teachers on average, undecided as to whether living in a smaller community would retain teachers in remote Tasmanian communities, whereas past teachers on average, agreed that this would be ineffective.

Table 4.5

Effectiveness for Retaining Teachers in Remote Tasmanian Communities - Perceptions

Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
A Good Place to Raise Children	Past Teacher	16	3.50	.82
	2015 Teacher	13	3.77	1.42
	PST	19	3.74	.87
	Total	48	3.67	1.02
A Low Crime Rate	Past Teacher	16	3.38	1.03
	2015 Teacher	13	3.77	1.24
	PST	19	3.63	.76
	Total	48	3.58	.99
A Quiet Lifestyle	Past Teacher	16	3.56	.73
	2015 Teacher	13	3.62	1.19
	PST	19	3.26	.81
	Total	48	3.46	.89
Living in a Smaller Community	Past Teacher	16	2.94	.77
	2015 Teacher	13	3.77	.93
	Pre-Service Teacher	19	3.11	.88
	Total	48	3.23	.91

4.3.5 Working in the Remote Communities

This section attends to work related factors that might influence teachers to choose not to teach in the remote communities of Tasmania. Three community members commented on work factors that might deter teachers from working in the remote communities. Three comments related to teachers concerned about not having support, and limited opportunities for career development including professional learning. Respondents to the questionnaires were provided with an option to rate the lack of professional learning opportunities as a deterrent for teachers choosing to teach in a remote school. Table 4.5 shows that on average, respondents were undecided about the extent to which lack of professional learning opportunities would be a deterrent for teachers to choose to work in the remote communities.

Although limited access to professional learning was not discussed by teachers during the interviews, the responses provided in Table 4.6 suggest that access to professional learning was still a factor, although not the most important.

A 2015 and a PST both commented in their questionnaire the concern for not accessing leave time when sick but did not expand further on why this was so. This concern might be associated with the limited access to relief teachers in the remote communities. Respondents to the questionnaires were provided with an option to rate the availability of relief for leave as a deterrent for teachers choosing to teach in a remote school. Table 4.6 also shows that on average, respondents were undecided as the whether availability of relief for leave would be a deterrent for teachers choosing to work in the remote communities.

In her interview, the PST commented that short-term contracts (explained in Appendix O) to go to the remote communities would act as a deterrent for some teachers. Wade commented that he was only offered term-by-term contracts which resulted in a full year.

Table 4.6

Professional Issues as Disincentives for Teaching in the Remote Communities: Working in Remote Communities

Professional Issue	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lack of Professional Learning Opportunities	Past Teacher	15	3.53	.92
	2015 Teacher	13	3.69	.95
	PST	17	3.88	.70
	Total	45	3.71	.84
Availability of Relief for Leave	Past Teacher	15	3.53	.92
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.86
	Pre-Service Teacher	17	3.76	1.15
	Total	45	3.84	1.02

4.3.6 Housing

Housing in the remote communities included three bedroom houses, two bedroom co-joined units, and single bedroom flats. A community participant, Warren, said teachers needed "suitable housing" to go to the remote communities, which could mean that not having suitable housing might be a deterrent. The availability of quality housing was provided as an option in the questionnaires. Table 4.7 shows that on average, respondents were undecided as to whether availability of quality housing might influence teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities.

Table 4.7

Social Factors as Disincentives for Teaching in the Remote Communities: Availability of Quality Housing

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	15	4.07	1.03
2015 Teacher	13	3.77	1.09
Pre-Service Teacher	18	4.00	1.03
Total	46	3.96	1.03

4.3.7 Pre-Service Teacher (PST) Professional Experience (PE)

Perry, a community member mentioned that the fact PSTs may not have undertaken PE in one of the communities could be a deterrent to choosing to teach there, "…a lot of the uni students don't come around this way and that might be if they were to come here that could probably remove that little bit of angst."

4.3.8 Additional Quantitative Data – Social Factors

As mentioned in Section 4.3, further data from the questionnaires as to what might serve as deterrents to teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities are provided in this section. These include: access to post Year 10 education, availability of childcare, access to TAFE, access to university, access to fresh produce, boredom, lack of public transport in

or out of the remote communities, and lack of public transport within the remote communities. Table 4.8 shows that, on average, respondents were undecided as to whether these factors would be deterrents to teachers choosing to work in remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 4.8

Social Factors as Disincentives for Teaching in the Remote Communities

Social Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Access to Post Year 10 Education	Past Teacher	15	3.93	.88
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	.93
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	3.50	1.15
	Total	46	3.85	1.03
Availability of Childcare	Past Teacher	15	4.13	.92
	2015 Teacher	13	3.46	1.13
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	3.72	1.18
	Total	46	3.78	1.09
Access to TAFE	Past Teacher	15	3.87	.83
	2015 Teacher	13	3.92	.95
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	3.44	1.15
	Total	46	3.72	1.00
Access to University	Past Teacher	15	3.73	.96
	2015 Teacher	13	3.92	1.12
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	3.39	1.29
	Total	46	3.65	1.14
Access to Fresh Produce	Past Teacher	15	3.33	1.05
	2015 Teacher	13	3.54	.88
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	3.06	1.21
	Total	46	3.28	1.07
Boredom	Past Teacher	15	2.93	1.39
	2015 Teacher	13	3.54	.78
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	3.28	1.18
	Total	46	3.24	1.09

Table 4.9 shows the social factors that on average, respondents thought unlikely to be a deterrent to teachers choosing to work in remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 4.9

Social Factors Unlikely to be Disincentives for Teaching in the Remote Communities

Social Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lack of Public Transport in and out of the Communities	Past Teacher	15	3.27	1.34
	2015 Teacher	13	2.92	1.19
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	2.78	1.17
	Total	46	2.98	1.22
Lack of Public Transport within the Remote Communities	Past Teacher	15	3.20	1.37
	2015 Teacher	13	2.92	1.19
	Pre-Service Teacher	18	2.61	1.04
	Total	46	2.89	1.20

4.3.9 Additional Quantitative Data – Professional Issues

The questionnaires for past teachers, 2015 teachers and PSTs provided options that focused on professional issues that might act as a deterrent for teachers choosing to teach in the remote communities of Tasmania. Although many of these professional issues were not discussed as deterrents many of the options provided in the questionnaire are discussed in Section 5.4, where past and 2015 teachers' views about what it was like for them to work and live in the remote communities of Tasmania are discussed. Because the themes generated from the qualitative data focused on social issues, all data from the questionnaires regarding professional issues are provided in this section. Table 4.10 provides the professional issues that, on average, questionnaire respondents believed would likely deter teachers from choosing to teach in a remote community. Support Networks, Friendship Circles and Permanent Relationships included in Table 4.10 are those relationships developed as a result of working in a remote school.

Table 4.10

Professional Issues as Disincentives for Teaching in a Remote Community: Considered Likely to Deter

Professional Issue	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Impermanence of Support Networks, Friendship Circles and Permanent Relationships	Past Teacher	15	3.87	.99
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.75
	PST	17	4.41	.80
	Total	45	4.20	.87
Lack of Program Continuity Due to High Staff Turnover	Past Teacher	15	4.13	.99
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	.93
	Pre-Service Teacher	17	4.18	1.02
	Total	45	4.18	.96
Lack of Access to Colleagues with the Same Subject Expertise	Past Teacher	15	4.33	.98
	2015 Teacher	13	4.38	.77
	PST	17	3.76	.97
	Total	45	4.13	.94
Poor Student Behaviour	Past Teacher	15	4.40	.74
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	1.01
	PST	17	3.82	1.07
	Total	45	4.13	.97
A Sense of Professional Isolation	Past Teacher	15	4.00	1.06
	2015 Teacher	13	4.15	.99
	PST	17	4.18	.73
	Total	45	4.11	.91
Limited Collegial Support Networks	Past Teacher	15	3.87	1.06
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	.60
	PST	17	4.06	.73
	Total	45	4.04	.82
Inexperienced Senior Staff	Past Teacher	15	4.13	.83
	2015 Teacher	13	4.08	1.19
	PST	17	3.88	.70
	Total	45	4.02	.89

Table 4.11 present the professional issues that on average, respondents were undecided as to whether the issue would deter teachers from choosing to teach in a remote community. It shows there was a significant difference in the mean response of 2015 teachers (M=4.15), and past teachers (M=3.13), [F(2, 42)=4.06, p<0.05] to the item 'Multi-Aged and Multi-Grade Classes', with 2015 teachers agreeing more strongly on average, than past teachers that this would contribute to deterring teachers from choosing to teach in a remote community.

Table 4.11

Professional Issues as Disincentives for Teaching in a Remote Community: Undecided as a Deterrence

Professional Issue	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Time to Access Professional learning	Past Teacher	15	3.67	.82
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	1.09
	PST	17	3.94	.90
	Total	45	3.93	.94
Access to Experienced Teachers	Past Teacher	15	4.2	.86
	2015 Teacher	13	3.77	1.30
	Pre-Service Teacher	17	3.71	.99
	Total	45	3.89	1.05
Availability of Relief to Attend Professional learning	Past Teacher	15	3.67	.72
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	.93
	PST	17	3.82	.88
	Total	45	3.89	.86
Cost of Accessing Professional learning (inc. accommodation and travel)	Past Teacher	15	3.80	1.08
	2015 Teacher	13	3.62	1.33
	PST	17	4.12	.93
	Total	45	3.87	1.10
Access to Resources	Past Teacher	15	3.73	.96
	2015 Teacher	13	3.85	1.07
	PST	17	3.88	.60
	Total	45	3.82	.86

Workload	Past Teacher	15	3.40	1.12
	2015 Teacher	13	4.00	1.08
	PST	17	3.88	1.05
	Total	45	3.76	1.09
Multi-Aged and Multi-Grade Classes	Past Teacher	15	3.13	.92
	2015 Teacher	13	4.15	1.07
	PST	17	3.59	.87
	Total	45	3.69	1.01
Expectation of Teaching Outside Subject Area	Past Teacher	15	3.47	1.06
	2015 Teacher	13	4.15	1.07
	PST	17	3.53	1.01
	Total	45	3.69	1.06
Limited Promotional Opportunities	Past Teacher	15	3.40	1.18
	2015 Teacher	13	3.31	1.03
	PST	17	3.65	1.00
	Total	45	3.47	1.06

4.4 Discussion

This section is presented in two parts. The first provides a discussion of Section 4.2, 'Why teachers choose to teach in remote Tasmanian communities?'and the second part discusses Section 4.3, 'Why teachers choose not to teach in remote Tasmanian communities?'. The overarching theme of Section 4.2, 'Why teachers choose to teach in remote Tasmanian communities?' is teachers having mobile autonomy, as defined in Section 2.3.3. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991, 2012; Boslaugh, 2013) is used to describe teachers' motivation for choosing to teach in remote Tasmanian communities. Each reason for choosing teach in a remote community of Tasmania is presented in Section 4.4.1, and discussed in relation to mobile autonomy as well as the implications of this for current practice and how it might pave the way for alternative approaches. Where applicable, the

TPB and subsequent implications, as well as possible alternatives to current practices are discussed. The extension of Bowlby's attachment theory as described by Doherty and Feeney (2004) in Section 2.3.2, can be used to explain why teachers choose not to teach in remote Tasmanian communities. Reasons provided for choosing not to teach in remote communities are presented in Section 4.4.2, and are discussed in relation to attachment theory. The discussion in Sections 4.4.1, and 4.4.2, are interspersed with reflections on my own experiences (italicised) in the four Tasmanian remote communities sited in this study.

4.4.1 Why Teachers Choose to Teach in Remote Tasmanian Communities

The majority of participants in this study were beginning teachers when they chose to teach in a remote community, and the main reason for choosing to teach there was the opportunity for employment, with the biggest motivation, gaining permanency. Gaining employment by any means was the most frequent reason for which teachers chose to teach in DoE schools in remote Tasmanian communities. For most teachers working in the remote community was about getting a job rather than about working in the community, and because of the provision for teachers to transfer out of the region after 3 years, teaching positions are more readily available in these communities. In relation to the neoliberal component of mobile autonomy, Verdouw (2017) noted that neoliberals aim for financial self-reliance, independence and security. This aligns with autonomy in terms of self-governance and the teachers being able to decide for themselves on the course of action they would take in order to gain employment. Having mobility provides teachers with the freedom to accept teaching appointments anywhere in Tasmania. This aligns with the freedom of mobility component of mobile autonomy, that is having the freedom to move from place to place, as described by Freudendal-Pedersen (2009) as well as Stokes et al. (1999) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012). Some graduate teachers were willing to teach anywhere if it meant having employment.

Teachers were willing to accept term-by-term contracts, because for some teachers it was better than doing relief (or substitute) teaching. This aligns with in terms of the neoliberal being self-regulating and taking self responsibility for employment, and the mobility or freedom to move to a location that meets their own desire of short term contract work rather than accepting day to day employment as a relief teacher if they remained where they were. Accepting term-by-term contracts aligns with Dryden's (2018) description of autonomy. He stated decisions based on personal autonomy are often made regardless of 'moral content' or in this case, the impact on the sustainability of programs in the schools as well as on teachers because they are focused more on their future and where they will be rather than focusing on the education of the students in a remote community. Removing term-by-term contracts and providing permanent positions would support the sustainability of educational programs and alleviate angst amongst teachers by providing continuity of employment. It would support the mobile autonomy sought by beginning teachers. This might be achieved by offering permanent positions prior to the commencement of the new school year. The Department of Education (DoE) would need to collaborate with UTAS requesting they advertise permanent positions available in remote communities. Although permanency is currently a 3-year appointment under the current industrial agreement (see Section 6.5.1) suggestions for encouraging teachers to stay beyond the required 3 years are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The motive of finding employment aligns with each of the three components of Ajzen's (1991, 2012) TPB. The more positive the attitude of graduates towards gaining employment with the DoE regardless of location, and the greater the perceived pressure from family and friends to 'get a job', the more likely the graduate is to seek employment in remote areas. The third aspect of TPB is the level of ability that the individual perceives him/herself to have to perform the behaviour – that is to get and do a job. In relation to

teaching and living in a remote area, this would require the individual to believe they not only have the ability or skills to teach in a remote location, but to live in a remote location. In terms of the external factors the TPB encompasses, opportunity, time and money, these are all present in the four remote communities cited in this study because opportunity for employment arises every year as teachers transfer out of the communities. Time in this situation might refer to the length of the contract whether a short-term contract (see Appendix O) or a minimum 3-year appointment (see Section 6.5.1), and the money factor of TPB might be in regard to fiscal aspects such as having a regular income, or the availability of reimbursement of relocation costs (see Table 6.1 in Section 6.2.5).

The biggest employment motivation for graduate teachers to choose to teach in a remote community of Tasmania was permanency with 50% (13/26) of respondents providing this as the reason for accepting a position in a remote community. Professionally having a permanent position means a guaranteed teaching position every year, and remaining in one school until eligible for a transfer. Having a permanent position enables the teacher to obtain bank loans, purchase property, and plan for their future. For many beginning teachers, it was worth spending 3 years in a remote community because of the long-term benefits. Long term benefits include having mobile autonomy for an entire career because the industrial agreement enables teachers to transfer to any given location (provided there is a position available) every 3, 4 or 6 years depending on the school's classification as stated in the industrial agreement (see Section 6.5.1) (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). Permanency as a motivation for working in a remote community fits with the notion of mobile autonomy and is aligned with the TPB. In regard to the neoliberal that Verdouw (2017) described as calculating, self-regulating and future orientated, teachers were willing to teach in a remote school for 3 years in order to meet long term personal and career goals. It provided them with the security of on-going employment. Teachers were showing personal

autonomy as defined by Dryden (2018) in terms of deciding a course of action for themselves, regardless of the affect the decision had on students in the remote communities. They had mobility as described by Gustafson (2014) in terms of searching for a better opportunity in life by gaining guaranteed, on-going employment with the DoE.

Having long term goals, and doing what is necessary to achieve those long-term goals, is aligned to the TPB. If teachers believe the planned behaviour of teaching and living in a remote community will contribute to the achievement of long-term goals, they will move to those regions (Boslaugh, 2013). *My own second appointment to a second remote school was in 1996. I accepted it in order to achieve permanent status. I had been teaching for 5 years on a temporary basis and as part of an industrial action that resulted in teachers with more than 3 consecutive years of employment, converted from 'temporary' to 'permanent' status. However, there was a 'catch' to my conversion – I had to accept a position in a remote school or not get my permanency. This was a 2-year appointment because I had already completed 1 year in a remote school. I too was a neoliberal, autonomous individual with the freedom of mobility that enabled me to make a decision for myself without any consideration of any moral content. It aligns with the TPB because I too had long-term goals of professional and financial stability and, as time has shown, accepting the condition of relocating to a remote community in 1996 produced the expected outcomes of long-term employment with the DoE as well as almost 30 years of financial security. My experience highlights that in almost three decades, since I was a beginning teacher, the practice for accepting positions in the Tasmanian remote communities has not changed.* There has been a long standing practice of individuals making decisions for themselves '…regardless of any particular moral content" (Dryden, 2018) or affect on the students or the communities. An implication of this opportunistic use of permanency to attract teachers is that it attracts predominately graduates or beginning teachers to the remote communities. The attraction of

experienced teachers to serve as mentors for teachers and experienced practitioners for students is lost in this practice. There appeared to be no practices in place that provided experienced teachers to meet their long term professional goals and therefore no need for them to plan the behaviour of relocating to remote communities.

Some current incentives to attract teachers to the remote communities were discussed by participants. The incentive that had the most prominence in this study was the provision of a priority transfer after completing 3-years as a permanent teacher in a remote community. Using the availability of a priority transfer supports the neoliberal characteristics of many teachers as defined by Verdouw (2017), that is, of being rational, calculating, self-regulating, and future orientated. It supports the autonomous characteristics described by Christman (2015) of teachers being his/her own person focusing on his/her own considerations, desires, and conditions. Teachers using the provision of a 3-year priority transfer were directed by their own considerations and desires, as well as the conditions in which they wanted to live and work long-term. Teachers moved to the remote locations in search of better long-term opportunities in life, and when they had fulfilled the requirements to achieve this, they moved out of the remote communities demonstrating how mobility is a part of modern life as described by Freudendal-Pedersen (2009). The practice of leaving the Tasmanian remote communities after 3-years can be explained by the TPB. Firstly, the attitude or intention of teachers to leave after 3-years is supported because the opportunity provided by the industrial agreement (see Section 6.5.1) as well as cooperation from others (DoE Human Resources personnel by way of arranging for the transfer, and principals of schools in urban areas accepting transfers into their school) influences the success of that behaviour. Secondly, the perceived social pressure from family and friends to leave the region influences the planned behaviour (Section 5.2.3, provides a discussion of family as a reason for leaving the remote region) and thirdly, the perceived level of ability to leave remote communities in terms of

time and money is evident because in the Tasmanian context, financial support from the DoE for relocation out of the area is available and in most cases relocation occurs during the Summer school holidays (January in the Southern Hemisphere), meaning there is time to relocate between appointments.

Addressing this industrially agreed incentive with alternative individualised incentives appears imperative. The incentives that had the greatest prominence in this study were work related rather than personal or living incentives but personal or living incentives emerged as deterrents. As highlighted by current practice and my own experience, the practices around attracting and retaining teachers to the remote Tasmanian communities have not changed in many decades, with some of those continued practices no longer serving their original purpose. For example, the financial incentives provided by the DoE were not considered an incentive by teachers for choosing to teach or for staying, this could be due to the large proportion lost in taxes as mentioned by Kelli and Wade. (see Section 6.2.2 for further detail). Suggestions for living incentives included paying for electricity or part thereof, with evidence this could be effective. Cathy mentioned that when she previously worked in the remote community they had free electricity. She considered this to be an incentive. The removal of this incentive occurred at the beginning of 1998. With the continuing difficulty of attracting and retaining teachers, reintroducing this previous incentive could be effective for 21st Century teachers.

Currently the explicitly provided incentives have a one size fits all approach with most of them being monetary. If financial incentives are to be used, then providing them tax free would increase the likelihood of them being effective. Mobile autonomy is not going to go away and so incentives should be in alignment with mobile autonomy. As Verdouw (2017) stated neoliberal subjects tend to be materialistic and value money. For the neoliberal teacher, losing a large component of the financial incentive in tax removes the payment as an

incentive, paying for electricity or having any other out of pocket expense, additional to the cost of living elsewhere affects the retention of the neoliberal teacher. Nevertheless, even if monetary incentives were increased teachers from a neoliberal standpoint would evaluate them in terms of their longer-term career (and hence monetary goals). Monetary incentives need to be considered in addition to more potent motives – that is professional incentives such as access to professional learning and promotion opportunities. (In Tasmania, this might include experienced teachers on salary scales lower than Band 1 Level 13, gaining Band 1, Level 13 status.) (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2017)), or career pathway planning for those seeking future Advanced Skills Teacher (AST), Assistant Principal, or Principal positions. Rather than providing a blanket set of incentives, providing teachers with a choice of options could cater for individual circumstances.

Although having a spouse or partner employed in a remote community or other family connections, did not influence the majority of participants in this study, it was an influence for six (out of 30) of them, of whom five remained in the region for more than 4 years. Teachers choosing to remain in the remote communities based on partner employment can be understood in terms of the TPB. For these teachers, the planned behaviour of remaining in the remote community achieves the expected outcome of remaining with their partner. Partner employment in remote regions can, therefore, be considered as a means of retaining teachers. Local industries could therefore play an important role. Community employment positions targeting partners/spouses of final year PSTs could be advertised through the Faculty of Education and the DoE. Teaching couples might be approached with each provided with employment to work in the remote communities (not necessarily in the same school). This option would provide partnered teachers with a greater choice of mobile autonomy because as Verdouw (2017) explained, neoliberals consider citizenship as self-care, or taking responsibility for family and friends, and in this case, their partner. It paves the way for

enabling both parties to be directed by their considerations, desires and conditions for living and working. In terms of the TPB such a policy would provide teaching couples with the expected outcome of living together.

4.4.2 Why Teachers Choose Not to Teach in Remote Tasmanian Communities?

The overarching theme of Section 4.3, 'Why teachers choose not to teach in remote Tasmanian communities?' was emotional attachment, in alignment to Bowlby's attachment theory, as defined in Section 2.3.2. Each reason for not choosing to teach in a remote community of Tasmania is presented in this section in relation to attachment theory and how this paves the way for alternative approaches to the current practice. This part of the study was presented in two components – social reasons and professional reasons. There were three main social reasons provided for which participants believed teachers would choose not to teach in a remote community. These were: leaving family and friends, employment needs of their spouse or partner, and facilities and services. Franks (2004) found that the personal cost of moving away from family was high and Kline et al. (2013) found that family to be the decisive factor for the reluctance of PSTs to undertake a PE in a remote location. Not wanting to leave family and friends was the main reason provided for why teachers would choose not to teach in a remote community. Leaving the support and social networks of family and friends to choose to work and live in a remote area where everyone starts as a stranger is a big drawback for many teachers.

UTAS has three campuses across the state enabling many PSTs to live at home whilst undertaking teacher education, so for many graduate teachers, leaving family to live and work in a remote community would be their first experience of leaving home. Weiss (1994) recognised the similarities between infant child/parent attachment and adult child/parent attachment (see Section 2.3.2). These included a reaction to the loss of the attachment figure

as a result of voluntary separation and Doherty and Feeney (2004) noted that a modified form of attachment to parents continues throughout adult life with attachments to friends replacing attachment to parents. It is, therefore, not surprising that leaving family and friends was the main reason provided as to why teachers and PSTs might choose not to teach or undertake a professional experience in remote areas. Using teachers' needs for mobile autonomy to address the fallout from disrupted attachments could be achieved by PSTs undertaking a PE in a remote community. Such an experience could be promoted as a means of accessing greater mobile autonomy in the future.

Identifying high school students aspiring to become teachers for the purpose of 'growing your own teacher' as promoted by Hardre (2009), Lowe (2006) and Monk (2007), is another way of addressing the concern about leaving home. Although many students in remote communities leave home to attend Years 11 and 12 and university the fact that they originate from the region, means they would be returning to family and friends. Supporting these students and recognising them as potential future teachers or other professionals in their communities would assist with attachment issues in early adult life. Having an upbringing in a rural/remote community was one of three attributes recognised by Boylan and McSwan (1998) as influential in teachers being attracted to remote areas and being retained beyond 6 years (see Section 2.9, for further details).

Attachment theory is strongly linked to the second reason for not accepting a remote appointment, that is, employment needs of their partners. Doherty and Feeney (2004) included attachment to partners as part of the evolution of Bowlby's attachment theory. This might explain why experienced teachers and/or second career teachers, choose not to go to remote Tasmanian communities. For these teachers, it would mean leaving their spouse (and possibly children) or separating children from a parent to relocate to the region. Developing partnerships between the DoE, the Faculty of Education, and the industries/larger businesses

and community employers could help to address some family concerns around accepting a teaching position in a remote community as there could be opportunities for partner employment. It would help to meet all three provisions of attachment that might influence the decision to work and live in a remote area namely: proximity, safe haven, and secure base, as discussed in detail in Section 2.3.2.

The third social factor that this study found for teachers choosing not to teach in a remote community was the limited access to services such as medical and dental. Vinson (2002), and Lock et al. (2012a) found that principals were affected by access to services in remote areas. Each town in the region that was the site of this study differed in terms of the types of services available. For example, of the five towns in the region, three had access to a General Practitioner (GP) 5 days per week whereas, one had access to a GP 3 days per week, and the fifth town (without a school) did not have a GP. Access to facilities and services are aligned to attachment theory because when health and well-being needs are not met, beginning teachers can find themselves in greater need of the closeness, comfort and security of parents (or partners or friends). Knowing these needs will not be met if they choose to live and work in a remote community, might influence the decision to not teach in remote areas. As Hazan and Shaver (1994) noted, despair is one of the stages that can ensue when attachment is disrupted. Recognising remote schools are mostly staffed by beginning teachers, with each teacher entitled to 20 days of sick leave in their first year, and 10 days each year thereafter (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2010), providing (and promoting the provision of) additional staffing to schools in remote areas to enable internal relief (substitute) teachers may help alleviate some of these concerns.

Professional issues that influenced teachers in this study to choose not to teach in a remote community can be categorised into three broader areas. These are: teacher turnover, school size, and teacher/student influences. Teacher turnover influenced factors such as;

having an impermanent support network, friendship circles and permanent relationships, and program continuity as discussed in Section 2.5.1. In some schools in this study significant changes in staff occurred annually as a cohort of teachers completed their 3-year appointment and transferred out. This constant 'revolving door' of teachers (and at times principals) affects the ability to develop and then sustain support networks, and friendship networks. The professional issues raised in this study can be understood in terms of attachment in organisations as explained in Section, 2.3.2. Hazan and Shaver (1994), for example, noted that the formation of emotional attachments can take 2 – 3 years and Richards and Schat (2011) explained how attachment theory provides an explanation of the ways in which individuals utilise internal and social resources to respond to demands and adversity. Considering the time needed for attachments to be formed (Richards & Schat, 2011), constantly changing teaching staff (and principals) in 3 year cycles (or more frequently) hinders the formation of attachments and, therefore, limits the availability of internal and social resources to support beginning teachers if they are faced with demands of teaching as well as the adversity of living away from family and friends. Disrupted support networks, friendship circles and the limitations to forming permanent relationships whilst in a remote community all reflect the difficulty of forming attachments such as bonding, as well as the ways in which teachers in remote communities seek support and exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour as identified by Richards and Schat (2011). In situations where leadership is constantly changing, the three functions of the supervisor-employee relationship in relation to attachment (Game, 2008; Paetzold, 2015); namely proximity seeking in times of need, a safe haven for obtaining social support, and a safe base to explore and to learn, are not available to teachers. In remote locations where teachers experience the three stages of attachment disruption from family and friends (protest, despair and emotional detachment),

these stages might be heightened where there is a risk of attachment disruption in the supervisor-employee relationship attachment.

As described in Section 2.3.5, Fox and Wilson (2015) identified four dimensions that characterise the social networks of beginning teachers. One of these dimensions was temporality. This referred to how the relationships within a network are developed and then utilised over time. For beginning teachers in a remote community, temporality of the support network is generally limited to 1 to 3 years. One example of the impermanence of support concerns mentors. It is difficult for teachers in their first year of service in a remote community to rely on teachers who are in their third year for teaching mentoring support because they are themselves still beginning teachers. However, the teachers in their third year could be utilised as mentors or as facilitators for social induction into the community because of their recent experiences of moving to the community. Induction would include assistance with accessing services and facilities, as well as becoming involved in the social and cultural activities provided in the communities. The use of third year teachers rather than senior staff could provide a sense of equality and power as well as allowing the beginning teacher to feel it is non-judgemental. This study found that face-to-face support networks are developed and maintained on a year-by-year basis but Skype, FaceTime, and social media might be used to maintain these networks, with new teachers to the communities joining these networks. This would assist with minimising the temporality of the networks. Technology provides a degree of closeness, one of the three features and functions of attachment theory (see Section 2.3.2), by way of a face-to face conversation. It could provide comfort, the second feature and function of attachment theory enable a teacher to have someone to talk to who has a shared understanding of living and working in a remote community, and it could provide a level of security, the third feature and function of attachment theory identified by Doherty and Feeney (2004) and Hazan and Shaver (1994), because technology enables a teacher in a remote

community to continue to explore and learn the craft of teaching with a colleague who might have recently transferred out of the community.

At the time of this study the DoE did not have a data base that provided details of teachers who had taught in a remote community. Setting up such a database and identifying those who would be willing to provide mentoring to current teachers in remote communities, perhaps by way of social media, Skype or FaceTime, could support the development of attachment and might encourage some teachers to remain in remote communities beyond 3 years. In particular, it would help to address the difficulties arising from the lack of same colleagues teaching the same subject in a small remote secondary school.

As described in Section 6.5.1, the Industrial Agreement states that a teacher in a non-promoted position is eligible for a transfer after 3 years of service. This 3-year requirement may deter experienced teachers from choosing to teach in the remote communities. In order to attract experienced teachers to serve as mentors to the beginning teachers, 1 year appointments, with an optional second year, could be offered to experienced teachers to work in the remote communities with the understanding that an integral part of the role is mentoring less experienced colleagues. The experienced teacher could also be offered individualised incentives to compensate for the additional costs of living in a remote location. Providing short-term contracts could attract a different cohort of experienced teachers compared to those attracted by a promotion (see Section 4.2.2.3). Experienced teachers who might wish to experience remote communities before committing to a long-term contract or applying for a promotion might be attracted by short-term contracts, or experienced teachers who are near the end of their career or who are not interested in a promotion could be attracted. Together these measures would address the need for mobile autonomy as discussed in the first part of this section, as well as address attachment issues if linked with the use of social media, Skype or FaceTime to provide ongoing mentoring to beginning teachers at the

completion of their contract. Attention would also need to be paid to the attachment needs of the experienced (mentor) teachers.

Program continuity is another casualty of teacher turnover. Program sustainability relies on buy-in from all levels of teaching staff. When new teachers arrive, and particularly if they outnumber those remaining, it is extremely difficult to continue school-based programs. Schools with stable staffing and few new staff each year, can rely on longer-term teachers to assist in bringing new teachers to speed on school-based programs. The difficulty of sustaining educational programs, and at times subject choices, was provided by Stokes et al. (1999) as a reason for which it is important to encourage teachers to remain in remote areas. When the 'revolving door' includes the principal, as this study identified, this further impacts school-based programs, particularly if there is no hand-over period. Although the issue of program continuity was discussed by participants in this study, there were no suggestions as to how this could be solved. Obviously preventing or minimising the exodus of teachers at the ends of years, and staggering the intake of teachers so that the mass turnover does not happen every 3rd year would help. Similarly, identifying teachers who might be willing to stay an additional year could be helpful to this end. As previously stated, targeting specific teachers, providing personalised approaches for encouraging them to stay, and giving them greater choices regarding the conditions for staying would address the need for mobile autonomy. In addition, the TPB indicates that teachers with positive attitude to staying and greater perceived control over that choice would be more likely to stay. Nevertheless, it is likely that even with such measures relatively high staff turnover will be an ongoing feature of remote schools. Rather than seeing this as making program continuity impossible or simply trying to minimise staff turnover, program continuity needs to be embedded in school culture such that turnover is accounted for. Measures such as providing handover time for both principals and teachers during which program continuity is a focus;

putting in robust processes for documenting programs in ways that are accessible to incoming staff; and building program continuity explicitly into induction processes for teachers and principals would be helpful. In addition, the relatively few long-term staff members in remote communities, including administrative and educational support staff, could be used to support program continuity. In a context in which measures such as these are in place, new staff could be seen as a re-energising asset rather than a threat to program continuity.

The second professional reason for teachers choosing not to teach in a remote community was school size. All four schools at the focus of this study, were small in size in terms of student numbers and consequently, staffing. Low student numbers mean that it is 'the norm' for primary classes to be combined (2-4 year groups in one class) and, therefore, the teacher is the only one within many kilometres teaching that grade, and possibly the only teacher in the region teaching that grade combination. In the two schools that catered for secondary school students (12 – 16-year-olds), it is possible to be the only teacher teaching a particular subject, at times an out of area subject, for 60 kilometres with the challenging topography described in Section 1.7. This situation impacts on teachers feeling professionally isolated. Professional isolation was recognised by Barley (2009), Baills et al. (2002) and Herrington and Herrington (2001) as a challenge for teaching in remote areas with Barley noting the impact of teaching multiple grades or multiple subjects. These situations mean it is very difficult to participate in collaborative planning. For example, it is nearly impossible for a primary school teacher of a Grade 2/3 to collaborate using curriculum content with a teacher in another school within the region, with a 3/4/5 combination. It is difficult for teachers with same grade/subject, but in the different schools within the region, to collaborate due to the distances between schools. This concern could be addressed in at least two ways. First, approaching planning using place-based learning as the focus and second considering a change of practice in allocating housing. Place-based education, as discussed in Section 2.3.1,

is centred on what is local. It includes a number of variables such as history, environment and culture (Bartholomaeus, 2006), and it can make learning relevant to the students being taught (White, 2008). Place-based education is one approach to supporting teachers to collaborate in remote communities, and, therefore, to reduce the potential for professional isolation. Teacher education providers would need to include place-based education as a unit of study within the teacher education curriculum and because place-based education can be utilised in any school and community situation, making the unit compulsory would support future appointments of all PSTs.

A second avenue for addressing professional isolation is housing. Currently teachers in Tasmania working in remote locations, are required to live in the town in which they work and this exacerbates professional isolation. Allowing teachers to choose the town in which they live could enable teachers to collaborate after hours. For example, there are two schools in the region that provide high school education with the towns located 55kms apart, if teachers could make supported choice to live in a central location between the two towns, this would provide them with greater opportunity to expand their professional support network as they could collaborate after hours. This could address the concern about living and working in the same town and not able to separate professional and personal lives. If teachers in Tasmania could chose to live in a town that is not necessarily the one in which they work, it is more likely that they would not have professional relationships within the community, therefore enabling them to develop social networks that do not cross professional boundaries. It addresses the need for mobile autonomy as discussed in the first section of this discussion: it might provide some teachers with a sense of security in terms of not living in the town they work in – some teachers reported damage to personal property and concerns for personal safety. *(In one of the communities I worked and lived in, I had threats of after hours personal injury placed on social media by an unhappy parent.)* It would address autonomy by

providing teachers with the option to decide for themselves where to live and the freedom to live in a different town from the one in which they work.

The third professional reason identified in this study for teachers choosing not to teach in a remote school, was poor student behaviour and inexperienced senior staff (school-based positions higher than a teacher). In the remote schools, there are several factors that might contribute to poor student behaviour. Teacher based factors contributing to this include: having a constant stream of beginning teachers, thereby preventing the development of long term positive student/teacher interactions; unsustained successful behaviour management processes; and inexperienced senior staff.

The difficulties resulting from having inexperienced senior staff, were discussed by participants in this study (see Sections 5.4.2.5 and 5.4.2.8). The importance of quality leadership to attract and retain teachers was documented by Edmonds (2016). Currently principalships in the remote region where this study was focussed are advertised the same way as all principalships in Tasmania using a one size fits all approach. Although Kelli suggested targeting quality teachers, explicitly targeting experienced principals and assistant principals to invite them to apply for positions in remote locations should also be considered. This should also include discussing and addressing the personal and/or professional needs of those individuals. Wendell acknowledged, if your personal needs are not being met, the professional needs won't mean anything. To provide greater autonomy to principals, and to address turnover, principals could be enabled to extend their appointment year by year after the first 3 years. This will support the development of attachment in organisations by providing teachers with an opportunity to develop employee/supervisor attachments in terms of having someone in proximity to seek in times of need, provide them with a safe haven for obtaining social support, and a safe place to explore and learn the complexities of teaching,

particularly if the loss of attachment to family and friends is already affecting the health and well-being of those teachers.

In summary, mobile autonomy and emotional attachment influence teachers choosing to teach, or choosing not to teach, in remote communities. The TPB explains the motivation behind performing either of these behaviours. Including place-based education in teacher education preparation would support teachers who opt to work in a remote community. Awareness of how mobile autonomy and emotional attachment in particular are influential when developing strategies for attracting teachers to remote communities, is imperative. Teachers are generally neoliberal individuals who are future orientated, aiming for financial self-reliance, independence and security, and seeking comfort and success (such as gaining permanency). They are autonomous in terms of having the capacity for self-determination and self-governance and they have the ability and opportunities to move from place to place. Some teachers are influenced by attachments to family and friends. Some are willing to broaden their horizons and are open to developing new attachments but others find this challenging, particularly if disruption to organisational attachment is experienced alongside disruption in attachment to family and friends.

4.5 Summary of Chapter 4

This chapter reported the results of analysis of the interviews, questionnaires and written responses from participants for the first research question, ‘Why do teachers choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?’

The question was divided into two parts, with the first part ‘Why do teachers choose to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?’ discussed in Section 4.2, and included but was not limited to: employment, incentives for teaching in a remote community, and connections in the remote community. The second part, ‘Why might

teachers choose not to teach in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?' was discussed in Section 4.3 and included but was not limited to: concerns about living in the remote community, family and friends, the geographical location, the reputation of the region, incentives, and PST PE. Section 4.4 provided a discussion and analysis of the main findings of this study in relation to national and international research.

Chapter 5 provides the results for the second research question, 'Why do teachers transfer out of Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?'

Chapter 5

Results and Discussion: Why do Teachers Transfer out of Department of Education Schools in Remote Tasmanian Communities?

5.1 Introduction

This chapter reports and discusses the results from the interviews, questionnaires and written responses from all participant groups to respond to the second research question:

Why do teachers transfer out of Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

For the purpose of presenting the results, the question is considered in three parts. The first is 'Why do teachers leave the remote communities?' discussed in Section 5.2, the second is 'Why do teachers stay in the remote communities for more than 3 years?' presented in Section 5.3, and the third part is 'What is it like for teachers to work and live in the remote communities?' the focus of Section 5.4. This latter section is presented in three parts, the impact of Community for working and living in the remote towns is discussed in Section 5.4.1, working in a remote Tasmanian community is the focus of Section 5.4.2, and living in a remote Tasmanian community is the focus of Section 5.4.3. Section 5.5, provides the discussion of the findings, and highlights their importance. Section 5.6, provides a summary of Chapter 5. Some sub-themes discussed in this chapter are similar to those found in Chapters 4, because of the overlap with issues related to attracting and retaining teachers. Aspects of my own experiences are interspersed as relevant and italicised. As stated in Section 3.8.4, pseudonyms have been used for interview participants and codes for questionnaire respondents.

5.2 Why do Teachers Leave the Remote Communities?

The interviews revealed a number of reasons for which teachers choose to leave the remote communities. These related to: work, living arrangements and family. These are discussed in turn.

5.2.1 Work Related Reasons

Work related reasons included having completed 3 years service in the area, and individual professional reasons. The most frequently mentioned reason put forward for leaving the remote communities was the completion of the required 3 years, in accordance with the industrial agreement. Three community participants commented on the 3-year requirement. Two of these believed that teachers had a choice as to where they went after

completing the 3 years. Bianca said, “I thought that they came here, did their 3 years and then they were entitled to go wherever they wanted to go to. That's what I thought.” The other comment from Frank, was supportive of the 3-year requirement:

> Three years I think would be the minimum that I would think you’d need to be there for and I reckon that there ought to be some dammed good carrots to stay there longer than that. So yeah, I don’t have any issue with that 3-year minimum.

Two past teachers who participated in an interview both said that they left after they had completed the required 3 years. In Emma’s words:

> Another reason was that I had gained my permanency so I had job security and I was able to transfer out. I always wanted to work in my hometown and once I had completed my 3 years I was able to move home and transfer to a school close by.

Three community members commented on different professional reasons for which teachers might leave the remote communities. One believed that not having support in the work place contributed to teachers leaving. Another suggested not developing friendships with colleagues, “They'll go to school, go home and stay there because they've no-one or nowhere to go and if you don't even get on with your work colleagues you've really got nobody.” (Joan.) The third comment was in relation to an unspecified work-related situation in which an employee, “… didn’t handle it really well.” (Frank).

A past teacher and principal, Kelli, said she left the community because she accepted another leadership position elsewhere. She accepted the position because she was concerned another leadership opportunity might not become available in the short term:

> While I really enjoyed my time at Fraser and it was a very hard decision to leave, the opportunity came up to gain another leadership position. I knew that if I didn’t take that opportunity then it may not come up again. So, I yeah made the choice to leave.

Wendell the non-school based DoE employee, commented on conversations he had been privy to with teachers in the remote communities who, "... knew exactly how long they had to go on their assignment ..." He further commented that the quality of the experience was not as rich as it was 20 years ago. He cited the reduction in student numbers, leading to fewer teachers and a change in the socioeconomic profile of the communities over the course of time. Section 1.9.2, explains that the population of the region had a 23% decline between 2001 and 2016.

5.2.2 Concerns About Living in Remote Communities

One past teacher, Jacki, commented that the remote community was never considered a location in which to live permanently. She said, "As I say I did enjoy it especially with hindsight but I was pleased to leave after 3 years. The [area] wasn't where I had planned to have a home. I wanted to live in Bowen." Two community members commented that some teachers don't like living in remote communities and some didn't stay very long. Danelle mentioned, "I have known teachers who have come here and absolutely hated it and haven't lasted the distance." This comment was supported by a past teacher, Kelli, who said, "Because I was down there for so long I saw so many teachers not survive and just didn't for whatever, for various reasons, just couldn't survive the culture of what's down there." A past teacher, PT11, made a comment in the questionnaire that, "sometimes [the] claustrophobic social environment is not for everyone."

Wendell recognised what teachers might need to live and work successfully in remote communities. He believed not having these needs met was a possible reason for teachers to leave. He said:

> The professional domain suffers for the reasons that I've mentioned before, and I hasten to say, that I saw a number of examples of terrific young teachers recognising that's their reality, and with the capacity that they've got, doing some really good

> things to address it. So, I'm not saying it's all bad, but on balance, that alone isn't enough. It isn't enough, and so those things, those professional supports, those interactions, the right mix and profile on your staff, of access to experienced and other people etc. that I spoke about: good school leadership, experienced principals, experienced senior staff etc. a supportive community. Those professional things on balance aren't as strong [in remote communities] as they need to be to sustain education. Then personally unless you are of the kind that you really get your personal needs met either by the people who have come down there with you, and the type of environment and lifestyle that the place offers, then if that's not working for you, you're going to have problems as well, no matter how good the professional side is. That part I think is more of a challenge now than it ever was for a significant number of young people. I met people who have had partners down there, and after a while their partners are struggling a bit too. You know they're in the minority for a start, it's not easy…

5.2.3 Family Reasons

One community member acknowledged that teachers move to be closer to their homes, and two past teachers confirmed this. Jackie simply said, "I wanted to be close to my family." As sated in Section 4.3.1, Cathy, another past teacher stated that her reason for leaving was her daughter's education:

> The reason I left is because of my daughter's education because as I said for primary school, I think it's ideal for kids. When it comes to high school, it's a different matter altogether… because there's not enough students, you can't offer the subjects…the subjects my daughter chose, none of them were offered down there…because the subjects my daughter wanted to do, she had to actually leave the area. I mean I

would've really loved to stay down there. I'd love to be permanent down there, but unfortunately my daughter's education had to come first, so that's why I left.

5.3 Why Teachers Stay in Remote Communities for more than 3 Years?

Some teachers do remain in remote communities for more than 3 years. Of the 30 questionnaire respondents, 10 had remained after the initial 3-year appointment and of these, six were still there. The overall themes for staying were the same as those provided for leaving, with the exception of staying for financial reasons. The themes are presented in turn in the following subsections. As in Section 5.1, pseudonyms have been used for interview participants and codes for questionnaire respondents.

5.3.1 Work Related Reasons

The majority of work related comments as to why teachers stay more than 3 years concerned professional reasons. Three community participants commented on teachers' personal motivations as reasons for staying. These included a belief that they were making a difference, as well as personal qualities of persistence, resilience, and self-motivation. Frank noted, "So yeah, they're, it's a special sort of person that can." Two community members thought that some teachers stayed because they couldn't get jobs where they wanted to. Another thought employment in remote communities suited their purposes and provided them with diversity in their experiences. A past teacher, Kelli, supported the view of diverse experiences:

> Well when I was [there] I had different roles and I had different experiences within each of those roles… I gained another leadership position [there]... From there that changed my world in regards to my work [there] in that I was very motivated. I felt

> supported. I worked with a really good team of staff and after several years built up relationships with the community to really value and enjoy the job.

5.3.2 Lifestyle of the Remote Community

This theme emerged from comments related to enjoying the lifestyle, being happy, and liking life in the remote community. A past teacher Kelli commented, "Because both my husband and I were down there we both, that was where we lived and so we, it was, it was part of our lifestyle." One community participant, Wanita, stated, "I think they get settled here. They have found the community or groups etc. that they found themselves to fit into. They get quite comfortable." Another community participant didn't think many teachers stayed more than 3 years but thought those who did had developed an affinity or connection to the place. Frank said:

> I don't know what the stats are but I doubt there's very many that stay too long. But those that do have a connection with the place and with the young kids I suppose and feel they can actually make a difference and they do. I don't think any doubt about that. I think they actually most certainly do.

One community participant noted that some teachers had bought houses in the remote community and another community member, Bianca's reason for which some teachers stay longer than 3 years was because of "Nice people like us".

5.3.3 Family

Some teachers stayed on in the remote community for more than 3 years, because they had family already in the remote community or they had married a resident. Two community participants commented that some teachers had family or family connections in remote communities with some teachers having their children there. One community member, Meg, noted that some teachers "… meet their partners and marry and have a family

and stay in remote communities." A past teacher supported this view as she noted that some teachers established their families in remote communities. Another community member commented on this as well but she recognised that some who married a resident didn't stay:

> I've known of a lot of new teachers that have come here, got married and stayed or got married and took the local with them or those type of things … I'm sure that they don't expect those type of things to happen when they come here. (Wanita.)

5.3.4 Financial

Two community participants commented on financial reasons for staying with Meg stating teachers were able to "…save money for travelling and investing in property." A past teacher, Kelli said that one of the reasons she stayed more than 3 years was because "… it took me a good 3 or so years to actually start saving money, to get my feet on the ground, after being through uni."

This section presented data concerning why some teachers stayed more than 3 years in remote communities. The next section relates to experiences of past and present teachers of living and working in remote communities.

5.4 What is it Like for Teachers to Work and Live in Remote Communities?

Past teacher and 2015 teacher respondents reported a variety of positive and negative experiences of living in remote communities. The following sections provide examples from past teachers and 2015 teachers who had worked and lived in remote communities or were working and living there at the time of this study. Many of the accounts provide insights into why some teachers leave after 3 years and why some teachers remain beyond the required time. Some non-teacher participants provided further insights into what it might be like for teachers to live and work in remote communities. This section, Section 5.4, has been divided

into three sub-sections: Section 5.4.1, addresses the impact community had on teachers, both in and out of school, Section 5.4.2, focuses on stories concerning past teachers and 2015 teachers working in remote communities, and Section 5.4.3, focuses on the experiences of teachers and principals living in remote communities.

5.4.1 Impact of the Community

The community, as a group of people, rather than location, impacted positively and negatively on teachers' experiences of both working and living in the remote communities. Community is therefore an overarching theme for working and living in remote communities. It is divided into two sub-themes. The first is relationships and friendships, and the second is community support. Data relevant of these are reported in the following sections.

5.4.1.1 Relationships and Friendships

Participants referred to two types of relationships. These were relationships with students and families, and friendships. In regard to student/family relationships a community participant noted, "They have parents and some of the students and that abusing you giving you a hard time on a fairly regular basis." (Frank). Two 2015 teachers commented on the negativity of the parent community with one saying,

> Negativity of community attitudes can be quite oppressive – e.g. constant criticism of school, teaching practices, perceived lack of discipline, misinformation circulated through social media etc. All these things make it difficult for staff to participate in community life outside of school. (CT8)

Three teachers mentioned having encountered parents who were grateful for what they had provided. Cathy commented, "His father actually rang me up and thanked me for allowing him to take this opportunity." Cathy mentioned a number of aspects of parent/family relationships that included: demanding parents, parents being informed of their child's poor behaviour, a parent helping to organise a class excursion, and the value of having knowledge

of the families. Another past teacher commented on how she was able to build positive relationships with the community while she was in a remote community. Cathy mentioned the positive relationship she developed with families in the community where she was the school principal. Some families would offer to look after her daughter in the evenings to enable her to go out.

The second aspect was building friendships and relationships. Three community members commented on teachers needing to make new friends. Two past teachers described making friends; one with her next-door neighbours and the other with people outside of school. A 2015 teacher said he enjoyed the people and felt part of the community.

5.4.1.2 Community Support

Three elements comprised the sub-theme of community support. These were: community acceptance and support, feeling welcomed and accepted, and feeling safe.

In relation to teachers feeling accepted by the community, one community participant, Monica, commented that it was up to the school to provide teachers with support, but up to the community to make them feel welcome. Two 2015 teachers commented on the friendliness of the community with one saying she felt welcomed. A past teacher, Kelli, was less positive about the level of community acceptance saying, "I felt that generally teachers were not respected in most of the towns. It didn't really matter who you were as a person that you just automatically went down there without respect." Another past teacher, Cathy talked about the reciprocated support between the school she was at, and a local business. Four teachers provided positive comments about community support. Words such as 'support' and 'supported', as well as Wade feeling "part of the community", were comments made by teachers. A past teacher, Jacki, commented, "I found the locals to be friendly and accepting and generally grateful for what I was doing."

One community participant and two teachers viewed community support negatively. The community participant mentioned how some teachers had arrived in the community and did not have anyone to meet them or to take them to their accommodation. Jacki, one of the past teachers, mentioned this lack of support as well. When she arrived, her accommodation had no phone, power or gas (empty cylinders) for heating and cooking, "I didn't know what I was meant to do to sort all that stuff out and that was challenging. That would have been nicer if they'd been more on the ball with that." She found the community wasn't very friendly, "…and sometimes they were just a little bit scary." Kellie's comments reflected how working and living in the same community can have its drawbacks,

> I did have a few issues with some families, which made life really difficult because you can't avoid them. So, you either have to be prepared to face those issues or hibernate. It made weekends and week nights quite difficult. I know that some people, some staff in particular who had big issues with community members, it made their life really miserable.

In regards to feeling welcome and accepted, two community participants commented on teachers needing to feel they belong and are accepted in the community. Jackie, a past teacher, who had taught at two different remote locations, found one town less welcoming to live in than the other.

Safety in the community was the final aspect of community support. A community member stated that teachers living in remote communities should feel safe living there, whereas a past teacher, Jacki, recounted feeling unsafe in one of the communities,

> You know I wouldn't have walked around late at night. I remember I went for a walk one day, was it called the [name of landmark]. There was a local with his dog walking back through it and I realised, it was fine, but I realised after that that I had put myself

> in a vulnerable position. I was in the middle of nowhere in the bush, no one knew where I was.

The next section reports on the themes that emerged from the data that specifically related to working in remote communities.

5.4.2 Working in a Remote Tasmanian Community

This section focuses on the experiences teachers and principals had of working in a remote Tasmanian community. These are all discussed in order of the experiences most frequently mentioned by community members, past teachers, and 2015 teachers. A stated in Section 5.1, pseudonyms have been used for interview participants and codes for questionnaire respondents.

5.4.2.1 Professional Development

Interview participants made comments related to teachers' professional and personal growth. Both externally provided professional development (PD), and PD specific to the remote communities were mentioned.

Three community participants made comments about the professional and/or personal growth teachers gained while working in a remote community. These included: building character, becoming well-rounded, taking responsibility, and meeting "…the challenge and fear of the teaching experience itself as so new to them." (Meg) Three past teachers described their own professional and/or personal growth. Two comments related to the remote communities as a great start to their teaching career. Emma said, "I look back at it now and I see it as being a massive professional and personal development learning opportunity. I grew a lot within myself." A 2015 teacher, CT1's, comment related to professional and/or personal growth. She stated the remote community was a great place to learn, with opportunities to lead and embed teaching practice.

In relation to externally provided professional learning opportunities, three, 2015 teachers mentioned the distance and time needed to attend such events outside of the remote community with one, CT1, mentioning the additional cost required to pay for accommodation. A past teacher, Jacki, recalled travelling to one location 1½ hours away on many occasions and another PD program that required her to travel 2- 3 times, each being an approximate 4½ hour return trip.

Some participants mentioned internally provided professional learning, Wendell, the non-school based participant, commented,

> … the reality is that schools themselves set up networks and connections with other teachers and they get their teachers to meet together on moderation or to do some work on maths or whatever. That's still happening. It's probably the most important for a classroom teacher kind of professional learning … So that local level professional learning obviously still happens I've seen enough and heard enough about that to know that it's going on. I think it's really important.

However, some participants mentioned that PD tended not to be tailored to the needs of teachers in remote communities or being otherwise relevant. A past teacher described forced participation in school based PD that she found to be, "…very poor quality and irrelevant to most staffs needs, contributing to a lot of additional pressure and stress." (PT1). Wendell acknowledged the difficulties of providing in-school PD in remote schools,

> … the best professional learning models on balance, have a high proportion of the time where practicing teachers are well informed, are working together, working with students' work, and referencing the stuff to the work they're actually doing at the moment etc. with a bit of expert input. That's not as easy to achieve for four teachers at Montana.

He continued expressing his concerns on the practice of PD provided in remote schools,

It's probably the most important for a classroom teacher kind of professional learning. If you look at a [remote] context where what you're drawing into lead that, could be some experienced people but it could also be some people who are learning together and finding their way and maybe the mix is not quite what we want.

5.4.2.2 Student Interaction

The theme of student interaction related to negative student behaviour, connecting with students, and positive student behaviour. The greatest number of comments related to this theme concerned the negative behaviour of some students. Frank, an advisory committee participant, used terms such as 'extremely difficult' and 'extremely challenging' to describe the behaviour of some students. A past teacher, PT13, noted in the questionnaire, "In a [remote school] you do not feel like a teacher. More of a behaviour management/social worker role than actually teaching." Two other comments during interviews with past teachers related to managing behaviour rather than teaching. A past teacher, Cathy, used the terms 'selfish', 'defiant' and 'badly behaved' to describe a student when she recalled an ongoing scenario with the student at her school. Jacki, another past teacher, discussed the extreme behaviours in one school stating, "I used to describe playground duty as like being in a prison riot. Bats and sports equipment were flung at other students, staff, and on the road, and the students were attacking each other." She recalled she was hit by a student and told by the principal she had to apologise to the student." When discussing her experience of working in a remote community Kelli, a past teacher recalled,

> A couple of experiences that I'll never forget were mainly from the high school students. I was sworn at, threatened, I was bitten by a student in my class, I was hit by a student in my class and after an incident with another student I had the side of my car kicked in. Through all of those experiences I had no support from leadership. I

> also went to the union and I felt like I had no support from them. So, it was, it felt like that type of behaviour was accepted.

The second area of student interaction was in regard to teachers connecting with students. Two community participants commented that low student numbers in a primary school meant that teachers were able to get to know all the students and not just those in their class. One noted the challenge for teachers of getting along with the students. A past teacher, Cathy, also based in one of the primary schools, commented on flexibility and catering for all the students, while one past teacher reflected on one role that had her working in all four remote schools, saying that she missed having the connection with students. In contrast to the many references to poor student behaviour one past teacher believed the students in the small school in which she was based were not influenced by the negative behaviours observed in the other schools.

5.4.2.3 Professional Support

The theme of professional support emerged from comments regarding professional isolation, lack of respect, and external support.

The most commonly mentioned aspect of professional support was professional isolation. Four community participants recognised that teachers in a remote community might experience professional isolation. Heath, commented that teachers in a small school have a small network or colleagues to work with. Joan commented that limited collegial support meant it could be a lonely workforce. Another community participant, Nicolas acknowledged the lack of "like-minded people," and another, Peter, commented on the dearth of professionals in the area as follows,

> "…the number of people in this area with professional qualifications is actually very, very low. There are issues that come with that. Like if you want to go and have a discussion about professional issues and there's no-one around, well you're stuck."

In regard to professional isolation a past teacher described not having the opportunity to collaborate with a same-grade teacher. A 2015 teacher, PT10, mentioned a similar concern, "Limited opportunities to reflect and 'bounce ideas off' same subject teachers, particularly when teaching out of subject area."

The second sub-theme of professional support was 'lack of respect'. A past teacher, Kelli, commented twice about the lack of professional respect she received from colleagues working in schools located in larger population centres. In relation to a hierarchy of status that she perceived, she said,

> I also felt that the perception [of the remote community] amongst other schools within the education department, we were looked down upon and even amongst principals and learning services, I felt that we, the [region] was always perceived as a, just looked down on, so perceived at a lower level than anyone else.

Her second comment was about teachers,

> I felt a lack of respect from some people because of where I worked from the department, now I know, I also felt like that from other teachers. Like if I attended PL, generally speaking the [region] was always looked down upon.

The final area of professional support concerned external support for concerns they had whilst in the region. One teacher spoke of seeking and receiving support from the principal leader at the time. The principal leader was tasked with providing mentoring support for principals and was based 1½ hours, drive away. The teacher mentioned contacting the union as well. The other past teacher, Kelli, said that she had contacted the union regarding student behaviour but didn't feel supported (see her comment in Section 5.4.2.2).

5.4.2.4 Leadership Support

This theme related to perceptions of poor leadership and high expectations, and support from leadership.

Three past teachers and two 2015 teachers commented on the poor leadership they had encountered in the remote school. Jacki, a past teacher, had gained a permanent position in a remote school but she felt from the start that the principal did not want her there and did not hide the fact. On her first day, Jacki was shown to an empty classroom and then shown the storeroom of furniture (on the opposite side of the school). In regard to poor leadership Kelli, another past teacher, noted the lack of supportive leadership and the lack of structure in the school during her time in the remote school. Another past teacher, PT1, commented on the lack of resources, her perception that most secondary teachers were teaching subjects out of area, with some teachers teaching up to four different subjects. She noted that the workload was horrific leading to burnout and stress, which was poorly managed.

A 2015 teacher commented on the lack of support provided for teaching out of area, while a second 2015 teacher, CT5, felt the school leadership swept issues under the carpet, creating a toxic atmosphere within the school, in which staff felt unsupported, unsafe, unworthy and inefficient. He further stated that, “the bureaucracy and politics within the school are debilitating” and allowed no scope for the teachers to think freely for fear of repercussions. He observed that the leadership had broken staff members to the point of them resigning, and described the leadership as incompetent.

More general comments concerning leadership included that of a community member who believed that teachers should experience support and a feeling of safety at the school level. Two past teachers provided general comments about leadership support. One was in relation to the absence of colleagues teaching the same grade level, leading to reliance in the principal for support. Another past teacher found that in one school there was not enough support. Two, 2015 teachers, however, mentioned feeling supported and described the principal as generous in relation to teachers needing to take time off work.

5.4.2.5 Staffing of Remote Schools

The theme, staffing of remote schools, included subthemes about beginning teachers, managing student behaviour, teaching out of area, disregard for quality, and incompetent staff.

The most frequently mentioned concerns were in relation to beginning teachers. A community participant noted that some teachers were not only dealing with moving away from family, their hometown, and making new friends, but they could be straight out of uni and it would be their first time being responsible for a class. Three past teachers commented on experiences as a beginning teacher in the remote schools. Kelli, one of the past teachers, made a typical comment saying, "Also at that time in at the school everyone was reasonably new so there were lots of first-years, second-years or third-years and that was most of the teachers there. So, we were all just finding our feet."

Two past teachers made comments relating to the management (or mismanagement) of student behaviour. Jacki believed the other teachers in the school she was at didn't understand that the behaviour of the students was not acceptable. She stated, "… there was another staff member saying she didn't want 'her' students given consequences. She didn't understand behaviour management at all. You know, I wasn't talking about putting them in prison. There was a lack of understanding there." The other past teacher, Kelli, commented on the difficulty of controlling behaviour because, "… we were all like within the first few years of teaching …"

Although teaching out of area was discussed in the PD section, it belongs as a sub-theme of staffing remote schools because the schools in the region that cater for high school students are not always able attract appropriately qualified teachers. As mentioned in Section 5.4.2.4, the past teacher, PT1, described teachers teaching subjects out of area, with some teachers teaching up to four different subjects with excessive workloads. In Section 5.4.2.4, a

2015 teacher, CT7 was mentioned, who was primary trained but teaching secondary science. Not only were the schools unable to attract appropriately trained staff, at times they are not able to attract enough staff. A 2015 teacher, CT8, requested assistance with staffing. She wrote,

> The [remote] schools all need to rebuild so that they can regain some credibility with their communities and this cannot happen without more staff, both teaching and support. This year we have not had a full staffing quota at any time - this creates an environment of constant stress, particularly for leadership, and does nothing for the morale level of staff in general!

Two past teachers believed that the quality of teachers was overlooked when filling positions. Kelli said, "… because it was so hard to staff the school, it was more around finding teachers to fill the gaps rather than actually finding quality teachers." Jacki's comment was about leadership,

> Many senior staff … didn't seem to know what they were doing. It was hard to attract good, experienced people so often it seemed that anyone who put up their hand got the position. I suppose departmentally speaking, it was someone to do the job, who wanted to be there, and that was enough. (Jacki)

The fifth aspect of staffing of remote schools was based on schools having incompetent staff. Two past teachers made reference to this. Jacki stated that a teacher who implemented a literacy intervention program for Prep - Grade 2 students didn't know how to run the sessions, while Kelli referred to some of the teachers in the school she was at as incompetent. As in Jacki's and Kelli's previous comments, these issues concerned the difficulty of finding appropriate staff, meaning positions were filled but not necessarily with quality teachers.

5.4.2.6 Staff Relationships

Two community participants made observations about relationships among school staff. One was concerned for those teachers who did not have good relationships with their work colleagues, and another believed that one of the challenging aspects for teachers in the schools was getting along with their colleagues. Two past teachers commented on staff relationships. One said that her principal believed there were divisions between the staff at the school, whereas the other past teacher, Kelli, felt there had been some positive friendships between staff in one of the schools in which she had worked. In this case staff supported each other. Similarly, at another remote school, she believed there was "… a really good team of staff." Two 2015 teachers provided further evidence of positive relationships with Wade saying the staff at his school did not want to, "… let colleagues 'down', consequently supporting each other more, with the other 2015 teacher, CT5, writing, "As a teacher I have developed strong relationships and friendships with colleagues."

5.4.2.7 Enjoyment of Working in Remote Schools

Comments about enjoying working in the remote schools were made by a community participant, four past teachers and a 2015 teacher. The community participant wrote, "Having spoken to teachers recently they all seem to enjoy living and working here." (Meg). The five teachers, consisting of four past teachers and one 2015 teacher, all commented they enjoyed working in the schools.

5.4.2.8 Teacher and Principal Retention

This theme included change of principal, change of teachers, and the effect of these changes on sustaining initiatives.

Comments relating to the change of principal were from two past teachers and a 2015 teacher. Jacki, a past teacher noted, "… things got immensely better very quickly …" after she experienced a change of principal. Kelli noted, "While I was down there, in the first 3 or

4 years there were three different principals. So not only was there a change in teaching staff every year but there was also a change in leadership." The 2015 teacher, CT4, mentioned the "high turnover of principal", as a professional issue that might deter teachers from teaching in the remote communities. *I witnessed a high turnover of principals in two of the schools myself while I was principal in the remote region. I was a principal from 2007 – 2014 and during this time, one of the schools in a neighbouring town had six changes in the principalship, another had four changes.*

A community participant, a past teacher, and a 2015 teacher all made comments about the high changeover of teachers. Frank, an advisory committee participant stated,

> (The) worst thing you can do is have a whole heap of change overs every year. You get to the end of the year and you've got a whole heap of teachers going and new ones coming in. That's never going to work.

As mentioned above, the past teacher commented on an annual change in teaching staff as well as principals. The 2015 teacher, CT10, noted the "high turnover of staff" as a professional issue that might deter teachers from going to the remote community.

There were two comments made regarding sustaining initiatives, both from past teachers. One described the lack of resources from previous years, "This made it really difficult for new teachers as there was nothing to go on, they had to produce programmes at the same rate they were teaching them and it was exhausting." (PT1.) Kellie the other past teacher stated,

> There was also a lack of structure in the school. I know that some of the teachers that had been there for a couple of years tried to get programs up and running but it was like we put all the effort into get a program up and running and change in staff and change in leadership would mean that it just wasn't, nothing was sustainable.

5.4.2.9 Programs and Experiences

Programs and experiences include references to: programs and opportunities, with one comment about work hours, and another comment about external views of the remote region.

Two past teachers commented on programs and opportunities that were provided for students in the remote communities. One commented on a literacy program she ran in the school and the success of moving students from being well below the benchmark for literacy to being at the benchmark by the end of the program. The other past teacher mentioned the school winning a competition and being able to send two students to Sydney as part of the prize. She described an incident where a giant squid had washed up on one of the beaches and, before it was taken to a city museum, it was brought in to show the students. They had the police boat come in and a police rescue helicopter land in the school playground so the students got the see the boat and the helicopter.

Cathy mentioned her work hours, saying, "I used to work at school a lot, I used to go there to work Saturdays and on Sunday." Kelli commented on external views when providing students with experiences outside of the remote community, "… if I took the students somewhere and we were representing the school, might be, like on an excursion or somewhere, like [out of] the area, that we were looked at as lower class in comparison to other people.

5.4.3 Living in the Remote Communities

This section focuses on the group of themes related to the experiences that teachers and principals had living in the remote communities. These are discussed in order of frequency of mention by community members, past teachers and 2015 teachers.

5.4.3.1 Family and Friends

The theme of family and friends includes comments regarding having family in the remote communities, missing family and friends, travelling to see family, and friends visiting the area.

A community member recognised that some teachers had family in the community. Two past teachers had had husbands living with them in the community and one of those had had a primary school aged daughter living there as well. Four community members said that some teachers miss their family and friends. Emma, a past teacher stated, "I really struggled not being close to my family and friends." Emma and Wade, a 2105 teacher both commented about travelling out most weekends to visit family and friends. A pre-service teacher (PST) had a teacher friend in a remote community who travelled out every weekend and Kelli, a past teacher, said that some of the teachers travelled out most weekends to visit their families. Emma commented that occasionally her friends would visit her and they would go out sightseeing. Her partner would come to the remote community occasionally to go fishing and diving.

5.4.3.2 Social and Cultural Activities

The theme of social and cultural activities includes comments related to activities available in the remote communities, community groups and sport as well as the limited cultural and social activities, and travelling away from the community for sport.

Several interview comments were provided about the activities available in the community, community groups, and sports the region had to offer. Between them, two community participants named football, hockey and basketball as sports that teachers were known to engage in. Four past teachers commented on some of the activities they were involved in. These included organised community activities as well as making use of the outdoor environment. Organised activities included bingo, zumba, golf and netball. Kelli, a

past teacher and principal, was president of the netball club. Outdoor activities included bike riding, barbecues, swimming, sailing, fishing, diving, and walking. In addition, one past teacher mentioned trips on the cruise boats, that operated in Fraser, as an activity.

Three community participants commented on the limited cultural and social activities available to teachers. One mentioned the lack of live shows, and another, Wanita, said, "We do have a lot to offer but we don't have everything that they may have experienced." Emma, a past teacher said that she found there was not a lot to do socially, and CT8, agreed, saying there were limited opportunities to socialise, play sport or be involved in social club activities. Two 2015 teachers commented on the need to travel out of the remote community to meet their sporting needs. One commented on "… the constant need to travel out each weekend to have these needs met contributes to the level of fatigue and stress they experience." (CT8)

5.4.3.3 Geographical Location

The theme of geographical location includes comments related to the isolation, driving/travelling, the weather, and the environment.

Seven community members mentioned that teachers can feel isolated while in the community. A past teacher mentioned it was her first time away from her family which was difficult enough and ending up in an isolated area made it that much more difficult. Two past teachers and two 2105 teachers mentioned motion sickness as a difficulty associated with travelling out of the community. One said she didn't leave the community much because her daughter suffered from motion sickness, and another, Jacki, commented,

> …my biggest issue I guess was the driving because I get motion sickness. I found it challenging driving in and out. Williamstown was ok going up that way but driving across from Fraser through to Clair was always a challenge. It wasn't fun but it was doable.

(In Section 1.11, the roads out of the remote communities were described as winding, narrow, and undulating.)

Two 2015 teachers made reference to travelling from the community. Wade said that due to personal circumstances he had to travel from the community every weekend, and another 2015 teacher, CT8, mentioned the need to travel from the community for sport and/or other social club activities.

Two community participants commented on the weather with one stating that teachers might find it difficult living in the community in the winter months when they can't get out and another community participant who spoke in general about new people to the community said, "Some come here thinking that's it gonna be Queensland and then just whinge about it, but you got to know that it's not." (Bianca). Two past teachers commented on the weather with one stating,

> I know that there were periods there when the weather would get to me but I was quite determined to, I overcame that because I knew that if I let the weather get to me then I didn't get out and didn't get to do anything but it definitely had an impact. (Kelli)

5.4.3.4 Enjoyment of Living in the Remote Community

Three community members made comments about teachers enjoying their time in the community. They used terms such as, 'handle it', 'love it', 'enjoy living', and 'hard to leave', and, Danelle described how teachers "… [have] come here begrudgingly and have absolutely loved the experience of being here ..." Three past teachers used similar words to describe their experience of living in the community. Specifically, they said they 'enjoyed', or 'enjoyed immensely', being in the community and described it as a 'really good experience'. Wade, a 2015 teacher, stated that he had enjoyed living in the community because he enjoyed the outdoors and liked the environment.

5.4.3.5 Facilities and Services

The theme of facilities and services includes comments about the availability of medical services, shops and groceries, utilities, and childcare.

Two community participants discussed the limited access to medical support with one, Wanita, stating,

> We don't have these services but at the same time we may not have them permanently but we have a lot of specialists that visit you know certain times a month kind of thing. The services are here they're just not permanently here.

Two past teachers, Emma and PT4, noted the lack of medical services and Wade, a 2015 teacher commented that his wife was unable to live with him in the community because she had medical needs that could not be met there.

Two community participants made remarks related to shopping and groceries. Peter mentioned the lack of variety or gourmet food and Warren said the grocery shop closed by 7pm. Between them, three past teachers, Cathy, Emma and Kelli, commented on the lack of shops, and the lack of fresh fruit, vegetables and meat. Two of the past teachers, Cathy and Emma, said that when they travelled out of the remote community, they would do their grocery shopping before returning.

One past teacher mentioned the poor phone reception and, as mentioned in Section 5.4.1.2, not having power or gas connected when she first moved to her house in one of the towns in the region. Another past teacher said there were no childcare facilities.

5.4.3.6 Daunting and Challenging Experiences

Eight community participants made comments about the experience for teachers being daunting with some mentioning experiences that they would find challenging. One of the community participants, Frank, said, "I reckon at the moment from a few discussions I had with some of them it's a bit daunting. I didn't have too many of them come up to me and

say wow that's great." Jackie, however enjoyed her time in the remote community overall but, didn't initially feel positive. She said, "I almost didn't stay. In fact, just in that first hour of being there and feeling 'Oh God!'".

5.4.3.7 Culture of the Remote Communities

Three community participants commented on the region being 'different' with Monica stating, "I think culturally too it is quite a different town you know the … towns are quite different and so it might be quite different to what they've experienced if they've come from a more urban area." Three past teachers commented on the culture of the communities. One described it as being a "claustrophic environment" (PT11), another compared the towns and stated one was different from the others. Kelli, another past teacher, mentioned, "There was also a lot of negativity between each of the towns as well, which was an issue." In regard to the culture she said, "The other thing about living [there] was that it was, using the term fishbowl, in that everyone knew your business, and you couldn't go anywhere without being known or spotted." The different culture was a positive for some. For example, Wade, a 2015 teacher, stated, "It it's a different community. I like that part of it."

5.4.3.8 Additional Costs

Past teachers mentioned various additional costs they incurred as a result of living in a remote community. For example, one said she had to pay for a phone line and the connection, Kelli, another past teacher, commented on the additional power costs,

> it was a lot more to service the power. Just as an example, the power bill that I had when I was in a small three-bedroom house [there] was more than what I had paid in a large four-bedroom two storey house.

Two 2015 teachers made reference to additional living costs. Both referred to running two houses – one in the remote community and another elsewhere. Wade mentioned that he was a homeowner elsewhere which meant doubling up of household goods and extra power costs.

He felt teachers in the remote community earned considerably less money than teachers elsewhere if the additional costs that were incurred were taken into account.

5.4.3.9 Housing

The theme of housing includes comments about the quality of the houses, heating, weather affecting houses, teachers not respecting houses, and cheap rent.

Two past teachers commented on the quality of the houses. One of them, Jacki lived in a house the department rented privately because there were not enough department owned houses. Her opinion of the house was,

> I was presented with my accommodation, which my family and I termed the shithouse shack because it was, it was a run-down shack that you would only spend the weekends in. There was no phone connection and it was a hole.

A past teacher commented about the heating. When she initially moved into her house there was a wood heater that she was unable to light. If her husband or the school cleaner were not there to light it for her she would freeze on those nights. She eventually had a reverse cycle air-conditioner put in. A past teacher commented on how the weather affected the houses stating there was a lot of mould because there was a lack of insulation in the houses, and it was cold with a lot of rain. Another past teacher, Kelli, described how the house she moved into had been repaired because it had not been looked after by the previous tenant. In contrast, a past teacher commented on how the cheap rent helped her to save money.

5.4.3.10 Lack of Separation Between Home and Work

A past teacher and principal, Kelly, made a reference to the difficulty of separating work and home in relation to not being able to avoid some families, and how some families made teacher's lives miserable (see Section 5.4.1.2). Wade, a 2015 teacher, stated, "There's not that separation I don't think from where you work, where you live." The non-school based participant mentioned that work and living couldn't be separated,

> Well I just think, I just don't think that you can separate the two I've always wanted my children to be taught by, not saying everyone has to be the same but a relatively balanced individual and that balance, if you're out of balance it doesn't take long for it to be reflected in how you manage your classroom and so you need both the personal and professional domains to at least be ok.

5.5 Discussion

As discussed in Section 3.7.3, analysis of the data was extended further by combining the quantitative and qualitative data to provide a typology of teachers. Typologies of teachers who choose to leave, and of teachers who choose to stay are provided in this section. Typologies used in this study, have been identified using the concepts of ideal type developed by Max Weber. Bruun and Whimster (2012) in their translation of the works by Max Weber, noted typology provided the ideas of the type, and norm. The ideal type is an attempt to comprehend individual traits using characteristic concepts. As Bruun and Whimster (2012) noted, types are not a depiction of reality, nor can they be observed in reality They are a mental image against which reality is measured and compared in order to provide context, causal determination, and the significance of the phenomenon (Bruun & Whimster, 2012).

Different types of teachers were identified from the data. In addition, causal practices for attracting mostly beginning teachers to remote schools, with most of those leaving after 3 years, are identified and explained. Some types fared better depending on their motivations. The overarching theme of Chapter 4 was teachers having mobile autonomy whereas three themes arose from the data in this chapter: mobile autonomy, attachment, and place attachment. The relationship between each of the three themes for each of the typologies is provided, as well as connections to the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB).

Mobile autonomy, as discussed in Section 2.3.3, can be seen as the main driver for those teachers who leave remote communities after 3 years. Those who choose to stay longer than the required 3 years were able to maintain mobile autonomy as well as to develop personal attachments and/or a sense of place attachment to the community. The system of teacher placement that operated in Tasmania at the time of this study was quite open, allowing teachers to move freely around the state. This created a continuous churn of teachers moving in and out of schools with the remote schools in this research experiencing downside of this system. The data suggest that mobile autonomy can influence the degree of place attachment because teachers who leave remote communities after just 3 years are unlikely to have developed the same level of place attachment, or a sense of community, as those who stay longer than 3 years. The reasons for which teachers transfer out of the remote communities were divided into three sections: why teachers leave the remote communities, why teachers stay in remote communities, and what was it like to live and work in remote communities.

The second section of this chapter, Section 5.2, focused on why teachers leave the remote communities. Reasons included work related issues, living arrangements, and family circumstances. Work related reasons included having completed the required 3 years in alignment with the industrial agreement (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013), receiving a priority transfer after completing the 3 years, having a choice of location to transfer to and, having gained a promotable position outside of the remote community. Three of the reasons provided for teachers leaving the remote communities were incentives for attracting teachers to the remote community and were components of the industrial agreement. These were: eligibility for a priority transfer after 3 years (eligible transfer and priority transfer), and choice of geographical location if there is a vacancy. Burleigh (2015) found similarly that the aspiration to teach in an urban location influenced teachers to leave remote locations. In

regard to leaving the remote communities due to gaining a promotable position, the principal Kelli, was concerned that another opportunity would not be provided. The Commonwealth Schools Commission (1988) found that teachers in remote areas were concerned the prospect of a future promotion would be affected if they remained in these areas for too long.

5.5.1 A Typology of Teachers Who Leave

The data in this study gave rise to a number of 'types' of teachers who choose to leave remote communities. As stated in Section 5.5, the main reasons why teachers chose to leave remote communities included: work related reasons, living arrangements, and family reasons. A number of types for each reason were identified from the data and each set of types is discussed in the following sections. The data suggest that individual teachers who leave, can show aspects of more than one type in relation to work related reasons, living arrangements, and family reasons.

5.5.1.1 Reasons for Leaving: Work Related

The types of teachers who leave remote communities for work related reasons were identified as: What's in it For Me? (WIIFM), Foreboders, Support Seekers, and Lonely Petunias. Table 5.1 presents the characteristic traits of each of these types.

Table 5.1

Teachers who Choose to Leave for Work Related Reasons

Type	Characteristics
WIIFM	Permanency seekers, aspiring leaders: This type has a vision for their future life and career and take measures to make it happen. They go to remote communities to meet personal goals such as to gain permanency or to gain experience for future leadership roles that enables them to plan for future placements. They go for long-term benefits of financial security to purchase property, and eligibility to access leave entitlements and raise a family.
Foreboders	Those who believe future prospects will be affected by staying in remote locations for too long. They believe they are not able to continue to grow and develop, and therefore any chance of a future promotion

	will be affected. They are concerned that promotable positions are not readily available and if they don't take the opportunity when it arises, they will miss out.
Support Seekers	Those who seek professional support such as experienced school leadership, experienced senior staff, mentors, and/or supportive community.
Lonely Petunias	This type is unable to form positive connections in school and/or the community.

Examples of each type are provided in the following sections, Sections 5.5.1.1.1 - 5.5.1.1.4.

5.5.1.1.1 What's in it for Me (WIIFM)

What's in it for Me (WIIFM) types exemplify mobile autonomy, discussed in Section 2.3.3, and do not have, or develop attachments that retain them beyond 3 years. They don't see remote communities as places to live permanently and so they do not see social connectedness, or sense of community as a priority. WIIFMs have no intention of being in the remote community longer than it takes to gain permanency, or experiences required for a leadership position. They use remote communities as a place to start working towards long-term life and career goals. WIIFMs have a personal agenda and do what needs to be done to achieve their goals. The WIIFMs identified in this study did not develop social connections within the communities they worked in whilst there, that is, they did not form emotional attachments or place attachment, and subsequently had no further associations with members of the remote communities once they left.

Emma and Jacki are examples of WIIFMs. They both started in the region as beginning teachers, gaining permanency whilst there, and left after 3 years. Neither wanted to stay in the community longer than it took to gain permanency and be eligible to transfer. Emma commented that after gaining her permanency in the remote community she was able to transfer out, and Jacki wanted permanency and going to the remote community was a means to achieve this. Jackie had future plans to purchase property and to start a family. She

had a choice of teaching in two schools and chose the remote school because that enabled her to transfer to her preferred location whereas an appointment at the other school did not enable this. Emma and Jackie both had plans to live and work closer to their families after they had completed 3 years.

WIIFMs do not develop strong social connectedness, or a sense of community, both elements of attachment, and particularly place attachment as described in Section 2.3.5. Ramkissoon and Mavondo (2015) noted that one factor in the formation of place attachment is the social bonding between people and the locales, and therefore, the formation of attachments, and place attachment by WIIFMs is impeded, especially if they travel out most weekends. Kelli had noted that in one of the schools she was in there were a lot of first, second and third year teachers, some of whom travelled out most weekends to visit family and friends. WIIFMs who travel out most weekends are unlikely to develop social attachments within the communities or place attachment to the community. Hazan and Shaver (1994) stated that the formation of attachment takes 2 – 3 years. Similarly, leaving after 3 years militates against forming attachments within organisations as explained by Game (2008) and Paetzold (2015). If WIIFMs are principals, organisational attachments are likely to be further impaired. The flip side of WIIFMs not forming attachments is, students and families not forming lasting attachments or bonds with teachers. In Section 6.5.1, Bianca, a parent, mentioned the difficulty of the constant change, and getting to know teachers, and the fact that by the time parents felt comfortable with teachers, they would leave.

Current practice in offering permanent positions in Tasmanian remote communities in conjunction with the industrial agreement in place in Tasmania encourages WIIFMs go to Tasmanian remote communities. The schools in the remote communities in this study were mostly lead by beginning principals and inexperienced senior staff. At the time of this study, two of the principal positions in the schools at the focus of this study, were classified at levels

below senior staff positions found in larger schools. Principal positions in the two remote communities were, therefore, mostly filled by classroom teachers with no previous leadership experience. These positions were used by teachers to acquire experience for future leadership roles. *I consider myself to have been a WIIFM early in my career. I went to two remote communities on two separate appointments. The first was to retain employment by the DoE, and the second appointment was to gain permanency.*

WIIFMs epitomise the TPB, discussed in detail in Section 2.3.4. They assess the life and career benefits working in a remote community will have, they consider social pressures for accepting an appointment in a remote community against the social pressures of fulfilling future plans, and they consider their own abilities to live and work in a remote community in order to achieve their goals. Jacki had been advised not to accept a remote school appointment but, based on her future plans, she chose to accept the appointment.

In terms of the external factors: opportunity, time, money, and the co-operation of others, WIIFMs have the opportunity for employment/permanency in remote communities because every year teachers transfer out of them. Time in this situation might refer to the minimum 3-year appointment (see Section 6.5.1), and the money factor of TPB supporting WIIFMs can be seen as financial aspects such as having a regular income, cheap rent, or the availability of reimbursement of relocation costs (see Table 6.1 in Section 6.2.5). WIIFMs might initially require the support of the principals and family to gain and accept a position in a remote community, and at the end of the tenure, additional cooperation might include human resources personnel responsible for overseeing teacher transfers.

5.5.1.1.2 Foreboders

Unlike WIIFMs, Foreboders are not identifiable until working conditions give rise to their concerns. Foreboders are concerned that if they stay too long, they will have less access to PD compared to their urban counterparts. They are concerned if they don't take

opportunities when the arise, they will miss out because similar opportunities might not present themselves in the future.

The provision of PD in Tasmania has changed within the last decade shifting from regionally provided PD that focused on school or region based topics, to statewide PD with a one size fits all approach, as Wendell alluded to in his comments. The majority of PD is provided in major or regions centres, with provision in remote communities. Driving distances to attend PD limit attendance as described in Section 5.4.2.1. Attendance requires either overnight accommodation, or early departures and late returns. In addition, remote communities are predominately staffed by beginning teachers, or teachers with limited experience in other schools, as well as first time principals, and these limit the quality of in-house PD in remote communities (see Section 5.4.2.1).

Although Foreboders might develop connections within the community, and a sense of place attachment, these attachments are not enough to retain them in remote communities. Foreboders share traits with WIIFMs in that they exhibit mobile autonomy. They are rational, calculating and self-regulating in terms of considering their future prospects being affected by remaining in a remote community. They are autonomous, independent and competitive in terms of growing and developing to meet future promotion goals, and therefore, are concerned that long-term remote appointments will impede their goals. Gustafson (2014) noted that people move in and out of communities in search of better opportunities, and Foreboders leave remote communities so they don't miss out on promotable positions or similar opportunities.

Kelli exemplifies Foreboders. She had been in a remote community for 8 ½ years and left because an opportunity for another leadership position became available and she was concerned that if she didn't take it, she would miss out.

5.5.1.1.3 Support Seekers

As stated in Table 5.2, Support Seekers leave remote communities in search of professional support that is not provided in the communities. Like Foreboders, this type is a result of circumstances. Support Seekers might need support to teach multiple grade levels, a range of abilities, and support for continued growth and development, but without access to experienced teachers, this is not possible. They might leave to work in a school community where parent and community support is stronger. Leadership positions in the four Tasmanian remote communities focused on in this study were mostly filled by first time principals, with other senior positions often filled by teachers already in the schools in their first 3 years of teaching. The schools were mostly staffed by beginning teachers. Some community members are not supportive of teachers in their community and as Kelli mentioned, parents can make life very difficult for teachers both in and out of school hours. Support Seekers are a result of one, or both of these practices. Some teachers described a lack of support from principals, generally, or support for teachers teaching out of area, because issues were ignored.

Where community support is not provided, teachers struggle to develop emotional attachments within the community, and they are unlikely to form place attachments (Raymond et al., 2010). The provision in the industrial agreement for a minimum 3-year appointment provides Support Seekers greater autonomy because they are able to choose to leave in search of what they see as not available in the school, or the community.

5.5.1.1.4 Lonely Petunias

As stated in Table 5.2, Lonely Petunias are unable to form positive connections in school and/or the community. Like Foreboders and Support Seekers, Lonely Petunias are not necessarily identifiable prior to moving to remote communities. Lonely Petunias might find it difficult to form positive connections in school and/or the community. Many of the teachers in remote communities are graduate teachers and most don't have prior experience of living

or working in a remote community especially if they have not undertaken a professional experience (PE) in a remote community as part of their initial teacher education program. Most PSTs are able to live at home whilst at university and so graduate teachers who have not undertaken PE in a remote community, but who accept a teaching position in a remote community, might be for the first time moving away from family and friends. Lonely Petunias demonstrate mobile autonomy when initially accepting the position in the remote community, but during the 3 years they do not develop relational attachments, or place attachment, so as soon as the 3 years is completed, they leave. Several respondents, commented on there not being a lot to do socially and one mentioned the difficulty for staff to participate in community life outside of school. Joan, a community member, noted that for some teachers the workplace is a lonely place.

5.5.1.2 Reasons for Leaving: Living Arrangements

The second set of types relate to reasons leaving the remote communities because of living arrangements. These included the remote communities not being a place to live long term, the culture of the remote communities, and teachers not having their personal needs met. If teachers viewing remote communities as not being a place to live long term, they place blockers (consciously or unconsciously) on forming long term emotional attachments or place attachment knowing they will not be in the community long enough to put their energy into forming either. Teachers who view their stay in remote communities as short term do not seek closeness, comfort or security (Doherty & Feeney, 2004; Hazan & Shaver, 1994) from within the community whilst there, nor do they form place attachment. Raymond et al. (2010) found individual connections to local social networks and the interactions within them was strongly related to place attachment and as Kasarpa and Janowitz (1974), found social connectedness that develops between people during the time of residency, was a predictor of place attachment.

The culture of the remote communities was a reason for which teachers left but culture is not uniform across remote communities. Boylan and McSwan (1998) noted that teachers experienced a cultural difference in remote communities. For example, Kelli noted the cultural differences between the towns which might be explained by differing industry backgrounds of the remote communities. Three of the communities with schools, have histories of mining, whereas the fourth community with a school is focused on tourism and fishing. The different industries result in a different mix of community members with some of the mining companies providing short-term accommodation for miners rather than miners taking up long-term residency with their families. The impact of this has been a cultural shift in the mining towns.

Hardre (2009) along with Irinaga-Bistolas et al. (2007) commented on teachers needing support to understand the culture of remote communities. Teacher education courses could include a compulsory unit that focuses on preparing teachers to live and work in remote communities (or any small community). Place-based education as described in Section 2.3.1, encourages teachers to immerse themselves in the culture of the place, knowing and understanding the community, with the community providing the context for learning. Such a unit would provide initial support and highlight the importance for teachers of understanding the culture of the remote community in which they will be living and working prior to doing so. Another means of supporting teachers to connect with the culture of the community would be to, as soon as they commence work in the community, use an existing teacher (or other staff member) as a social mentor, and/or a community 'buddy'. This person could demonstrate the willingness of the community to include the teacher in their social networks whilst in the area. The concept of a social induction could be further developed through the formation of a social network in conjunction with local councils. There are a number of social groups and sporting groups operating in different communities with teachers generally

finding out which ones operate in the community in which they live and work. The level of social and cultural activities varies between communities with teachers in smaller communities having less access to the collective social and cultural activities. For the communities that were the focus of this study, providing a social network encompassing all four communities would provide an avenue to develop social connectedness. This might support some teachers to develop emotional attachments as well as place attachment that could result in them choosing to remain in the area for more than 3 years. It would provide teachers with an opportunity to participate in sports or social groups they may otherwise have been unaware were available.

From the data provided in this study, the 'types' of teachers who leave remote communities based on lifestyle and living arrangements are: City Slickers and Negative Nellies. Table 5.2 presents characteristics of these types.

Table 5.2

Teachers who Leave Remote Communities Based on Lifestyle and Living Arrangements

Type	Characteristics
City Slickers	Those who find living in a remote or isolated community too challenging and not able to survive in locations where access to consumerism is limited.
Negative Nellies	Those who go to remote communities with negative pre-conceived ideas and/or find very little positives once there.

Examples of City Slickers and Negative Nellies, are provided in the following sections, Section 5.5.1.2.1, and Section 5.5.1.2.2.

5.5.1.2.1 City Slickers

Challenges of living in remote communities are generally identified as the absence of what is available in larger communities such as privacy, anonymity, family and friends as

well as limited access to consumerism such as facilities, services, and shops. Where the absence of these becomes a challenge, City Slickers leave remote communities in order to satisfy their personal needs. Not many teachers have prior experience of living or working in a remote community. In the absence of undertaking pre-service professional experience, City Slickers are not identifiable until they have already chosen to relocate to the remote community and once there, find the lifestyle and living arrangements difficult to adapt to. City Slickers, make an autonomous decision to accept a placement in a remote community. They might originally be identified as WIIFMs. However, once they are in the remote community, the perceived challenges impair their ability to form place attachment, and for 3 years they feel they have lost their mobile autonomy. Once the 3-year placement is completed, access to mobile autonomy returns, and they leave. Participants identified a number of varying elements that were absent in the remote communities but available elsewhere in the state. These included: access to gourmet food and limited shopping hours, with grocery shops closing by 7pm. Emma, Cathy and Kelli all mentioned the lack of shops with Cathy and Emma specifically mentioning the lack of fresh fruit, vegetables and meat. Emma and Cathy noted the requirement of grocery shopping outside of the community to access variety and cheaper groceries. Kelli mentioned using school holidays for medical, dental and hairdressing appointments. In Section 4.3.1 Gina said, “the lack of recreational and cultural activities” and in Section 5.4.3.2, two, 2015 teachers, mentioned the need to travel out of the remote community to meet their sporting needs. One participant mentioned the absence of music, ballet, and dancing, stating there were not the luxuries of the cities. He indicated community members in remote communities found their own forms of entertainment.

5.5.1.2.2 Negative Nellies

As Table 5.3 states Negative Nellies go to remote areas with preconceived negative pre-conceptions and/or don't find anything positive about the communities once there. Pre-conceptions might be a result of negative word of mouth from others who have not had favourable experiences in remote communities but also from the media. For example, at the time of this study the remote communities at the focus of this study had received its share of negative media coverage (see Section 4.3.4). Once in the community, Negative Nellies do not find anything positive to change their views. Based on the negative preconceived perceptions of Negative Nellies, they might be identifiable prior to undertaking a placement.

Danelle knew teachers who went to the remote communities and they hated it and didn't stay the required length of time. PT11 noted that the social environment was not for everyone. Kelli had various roles in the remote communities over 8 ½ years during which time she witnessed teachers who did not survive. If this were the case, this does not provide Negative Nellies with support to change their views.

5.5.1.3 Reasons for Leaving: Family Reasons

The data suggest two types of teachers leave remote communities for family reasons: Homing Pigeons, and Altruists. Table 5.3 provides the characteristics of these types.

Table 5.3

Teachers who Choose to Leave for Family Reasons

Type	Characteristics
Homing Pigeons	Homing Pigeons leave to return to family and friends.
Altruists	Altruists leave for the benefit of other family members.

Description and examples of Homing Pigeons and Altruists are provided in Sections 5.5.1.3.1, and 5.5.1.3.2.

5.5.1.3.1 Homing Pigeons

During their time in remote communities, Homing Pigeons find every opportunity to return to family and friends including for weekends and school holidays. Homing Pigeons, therefore, do not engage in the social or sporting aspects of community life outside of the working week. Leaving remote areas to be closer to family and friends was mentioned in the literature, for example, by Barley (2009) and Herrington and Herrington (2001). Homing Pigeons do not form place attachment because they maintain a level of mobile autonomy throughout their tenure travelling out most weekends and every school holiday. Emma and Wade, exhibited Homing Pigeon tendencies by travelling out most weekends to visit family and friends.

5.5.1.3.2 Altruists

Altruists have children and/or partners with them in the community but leave because the community does not meet the needs of their children and/or partner. Altruists might have a desire to develop social connections or attachments and/or place attachment, however due to child/partner circumstances this does not eventuate. Cathy, for example, left because of her child's education. Her daughter wanted to undertake high school subjects not offered in the remote community so Cathy left to enable her to undertake those subjects in a city school.

5.5.2 A Typology of Teachers Who Stay Longer than 3 Years

The second section concerning reasons for which teachers transfer out of the remote communities, related to why teachers stayed longer than 3 years. Reasons related to work, lifestyle and family. One of the work-related reasons was being personally motivated by, for example, making a difference. Wallace and Boylan (2007) noted the positive effect of long staying teachers on remote communities and Vinson (2002) noted the contribution teachers made to the social capital of remote communities. Longer staying teachers in the

communities at the focus of this study, were known for becoming a part of the community, and forming a connection with the community. Living in the community became a part of the teacher's life style, with some teachers purchasing houses. Staying for the enjoyment of the lifestyle aligns with the findings of Lock et al. (2012b) that some teachers enjoy the lifestyle in remote communities. The other main reason this study found for teachers staying in the community was family reasons. Some teachers married local residents and ended up staying in the community to raise their family. Family reasons for staying relate to Bowlby's attachment theory, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), and place attachment. Lifestyle reasons for staying also relate to place attachment.

Six of 29 teachers who participated in this study had a partner or spouse living with them in one of the remote communities. Five of those remained in the community longer than 3 years, with 15 being the most number of years. Boylan and McSwan (1998) noted one of three identified characteristics of teachers who remained in remote communities longer than 6 years was living with a spouse or partner. Doherty and Feeney (2004) noted Bowlby's attachment theory had evolved over time, to include attachments formed with partners, parents, children siblings, and friends. Teachers who live in remote communities with a partner or spouse have access to the three features of attachment: closeness, comfort and security of their partner/spouse on a daily basis. They do not experience the stages of disruption of attachment faced by teachers in remote communities living away from their partner/spouse. Teachers living with their partner/spouse have no need to leave the community because their attachment needs are being met.

Teachers who stay in remote communities because they have family members living in the community are motivated to stay in order to continue living with or near their family. Having family in the community is an external factor influencing the outcome of their planned behaviour. Teachers with family members living in the community would assess the

choice of remaining near family or leaving, and have a perceived level of social pressure (from family members) to remain in the community. These are all elements of the theory of planned behaviour.

In regard to place attachment and staying in remote communities based on lifestyle and family reasons, Raymond et al. (2010) noted the importance of the role of the community in forming place attachment. Community influences feelings of "… community attachment, belongingness, rootedness and familiarity" (Raymond et al., 2010, p. 423). Community connectedness contributed to emotional attachment (Brown et al., 2015; Kyle et al., 2004; Ramkissoon & Mavondo, 2015). This explains why teachers who develop friendships within remote communities and engage in the social activities on offer stayed longer than 3 years. Although remote communities can have a lot to offer in the outdoors (bike riding, barbecues, swimming, sailing, fishing, diving, and walking) unless there is a social element or opportunity to develop social attachments, teachers are unlikely to stay in a community without emotional attachment as well. Teachers need to be encouraged to engage with the community in order to develop friendships.

Most teachers who accept appointments in remote schools are beginning teachers and are in the 'concerned about self' phase of Fuller's teacher development model (see Section 2.9). Those who leave after 3 years do not develop beyond the first phase of his model. The data in this study has given rise to seven 'types' of teachers who choose to stay longer than the required 3 years. By staying longer than 3 years, students have access to novice teachers as defined by Ulferts (2015), as well as teachers who are developing beyond the first phase of Fuller's model of teacher development. Because each identified type has the option to leave after 3 years but chose not to, they continue to have mobile autonomy by choosing to stay, but they develop emotional attachments and place attachment, although how this develops

differs between each type. The types relate to staying for work, lifestyle, or family and are discussed in Sections 5.5.2.1 to 5.5.2.3.

5.5.2.1 Reasons for Staying: Work Related

The main reason for which teachers chose to stay in remote communities were work related. The data suggest two types of teachers who stay in remote communities for work reasons: Change Agents and Constants. Table 5.4 provides the characteristics of these types. Individual teachers who stay, can show aspects of more than one type in relation to work, life, or family.

Table 5.4

Teachers who Choose to Stay for Work Related Reasons

Type	Characteristics
Change Agents	This type stays because they believe they are making a difference to the lives of students, families and/or community.
Constants	Constants are those who stay because they can't get a position where they want. They might stay because they cannot survive in less isolated locations where perhaps expectations are higher and surveillance is greater.

5.5.2.1.1 Change Agents

Change Agents are concerned about the students and student learning. They develop a level of place attachment as a result of connections in the community and might become involved in community life where they believe they make a difference. Community members commented on some teachers who stayed because they believed they were making a difference, showing personal qualities of persistence, resilience, and self-motivation. Kelli and her teacher husband were in the remote community for 8½ years. Kelli went to the region as a beginning teacher in one of the schools, and ended up as principal in one of the other schools. During this time, she and her husband lived there and it became part of their

lifestyle, including Kelli taking on president of the netball club. Kelli is an example of a Change Agent for students and the community. *I believe that I showed characteristics of this type during my last appointment in a remote school. I was principal and I was in the community for 8 years. I felt I was making a difference to the students in the community.*

5.5.2.1.2 Constants

Constants are at the opposite end of the spectrum from Change Agents. Change Agents stay because they believe they are making a difference, whereas, Constants stay because they either can't get a position where they want, or they cannot survive in less isolated locations where perhaps expectations are higher and surveillance is greater. Two community members believed that some teachers stay because they can't get jobs where they want to. *I displayed characteristics of a constant when towards the end of my principalship I requested a transfer to a position below that of principal, but when this request was initially rejected I chose to stay. I remained another year at which time my request was granted.* Constants are teachers who stay because they may not survive in urban schools. Most principals in the remote school in this study were first time principals. Inexperienced principals are still developing expectations and developing the instructional leadership component of their role. Teachers in these schools might not therefore, have the same level of accountability as teachers in schools with experienced principals.

5.5.2.2 Reasons for Staying: Lifestyle

The second category of types concerned teachers who choose to stay in remote communities for the lifestyle. These teachers can be characterised as Embracers. Embracers are those who embrace the lifestyle of the community and become involved in community life. Examples of Embracers are provided in the following section.

5.5.2.2.1 Embracers

The Embracer does not need to make significant changes in order to become involved in community life. Cathy spoke of her initial appointment as a teacher in one of the remote communities some 20 years earlier and, at the time of this study, had undertaken two separate appointments as a principal in the same school. In her first appointment as principal she had remained in the community longer than 3 years. During both appointments, she lived in the community and became involved in the community. Because Cathy had already spent time in the region, she was able to embrace the lifestyle. Cathy developed friendships with some of the families with some offering to look after her daughter in the evenings to enable Cathy to go out.

Wade, a 2015 teacher, was in his 4th year in the remote community, He enjoyed living in the community because he had embraced the outdoors and liked the environment.

During my principalship I believe I was an Embracer. I didn't have to adapt, because like Cathy, I knew what to expect from my previous appointments in the area. I was willing to embrace the lifestyle, community and opportunities the community provided. I felt welcomed and accepted, and enjoyed my time living in the community. I made connections with the community joining the Lions Club and Country Women's Association. I formed a degree of place attachment.

5.5.2.3 Reasons for Staying: Family (Familiars)

The third reason for which teachers chose to stay in remote communities is family. One type of teacher in this category was identified from the data: Familiars. Familiars are those with family already in the community, or those who find partners in the community. Familiars identified in this study included both subsets. Some had family already in the area, for example Cathy displayed characteristics of a Familiar. She stayed longer than three years because her husband (who had been working in the region before she took up a principalship

there) was still working in the region. Other teachers identified by participants, had married community members and were raising a family in the community.

5.5.3 Working and Living: Connections to 'Types"

The third section, 'What is it like to live and work in the community?' is divided into two sections, working in the remote community, and living in the remote community. The local community impacts positively and negatively in both these areas of teachers' lives. Community impacted on relationships and friendships, and community support. The following Sections 5.5.3.1, and 5.5.3.2, make connections between the literature, and the identified types of teachers who work, and the identified types of teachers who live, in remote communities.

5.5.3.1 Working in Remote Communities: Connections to 'Types'

Edmonds (2016) and Franks (2004) noted that communities can place high expectations on teachers and principals, not just of their work but also on the level of community involvement they will engage in. Principals and teachers stay longer if they feel support and acceptance of the community (Lock et al., 2012a). Raymond et al. (2010) highlighted the important role of the community in the development of place attachment. Where the communities support the development of relationships and friendships, they support teachers' development of attachment and/or place attachment.

As described in Section 5.4.2, working in the remote community included the themes: PD, professional support, leadership support, and staffing of the remote school. These themes are similar to those found in the literature. This study included professional and personal growth, and travelling to attend PD as a component of PD. Franks (2004) and O'Callaghan (2015) noted that travelling long distances to attend PD was commonplace for teachers living in remote areas but Lock et al. (2012b) found that one of the benefits of staying in remote areas was it provided opportunities for professional and personal growth. This too was

identified as a benefit for teaching in the remote Tasmanian communities in this study, but so too was professional isolation. Barley (2009) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) identified professional isolation as a reason for teachers not remaining in remote communities with Barley (2009) identifying the lack of same grade teachers as influencing some teachers to leave. Not having same grade or same subject teachers with whom to collaborate was mentioned by participants in this study. Another area of professional support that emerged from this study was the lack of mentors, due to the lack of experienced teachers. Herrington and Herrington (2001), Sharplin (2002) and Sullivan and Johnson (2012) all recognised the importance of providing mentors for beginning teachers, with Lock et al. (2012b) and White et al. (2009) going so far as to state that ongoing mentoring programs assist in retaining teachers. Teachers who leave in the absence of PD and mentors were classified as Support Seekers (Section 5.5.1.1.3).

Another influence on Support Seekers leaving, is the quality of leadership. In this study poor leadership support was prominent. Haar (2007) and Watkins (2005) found that without strong leadership support, retaining teachers would be difficult and White et al. (2009) found leadership to be the most influential factor in retaining teachers. A related issue is the staffing of the remote schools with mostly beginning teachers. Roberts (2004) and Sharplin (2002) found this to be a continuing historical practice in remote schools. Explicitly targeting experienced principals or other senior staff to fill leadership positions in remote areas would be beneficial. One of the remote schools in this study had an experienced principal for 3 years and the comments from participants supported the benefit of such an appointment.

5.5.3.2 Living in Remote Communities: Connections to 'Types'

The second part of 'working and living in a remote community' was 'living in a remote community'. This included: family and friends, isolation, facilities and services, the

culture of the remote communities, housing, and not separating work from home. Participants in this study found that they missed being near their family and friends, with some (Homing Pigeons) travelling out of the remote communities regularly to see them. Lock et al. (2012b) found that one of the negatives of living in a remote community was the remoteness from family and friends. The isolation of living in a remote community was identified as a challenge for some teachers in this study which is similar to the findings of Burleigh (2015) who found isolation to be a problem for retaining teachers. In regard to access to facilities and services, the most commonly mentioned in this study was medical facilities. In his report, Vinson (2002) identified access to medical facilities as the biggest concern when he discussed access to goods and services. The cultural differences between the remote towns compared to larger towns and cities in Tasmania was identified as a reason for teachers leaving the remote communities (Section 5.2.2). The culture of the remote communities was mentioned in relation to what it was like to live in a remote community (Section 5.4.3.7). This study reported on cultural differences between each of the remote communities, a perceived negativity between each of the remote towns towards the other remote towns, and not having any privacy. In regard to the loss of privacy, Lock et al. (2012b) found lack of privacy was disliked by teachers in remote areas. Similarly, Franks (2004) and Halsey (2006) found that teachers in remote communities were continuously under scrutiny with the loss of anonymity after hours. Dislike of this aspect of living in remote communities was a characteristic of City Slickers.

Difficulties in separating professional life from the personal life was reported by participants in this study. These findings align with O'Callaghan (2015) and Downes and Roberts (2018) who noted the line between personal and professional life was often obscured in remote areas. Similarly, Graham et al. (2009) mentioned that principals in remote communities found it difficult to separate the two. Connected to this, Sharplin (2002) noted

that beginning teachers found it difficult to constantly maintain a professional image. Teachers in this study were required to live in the town in which they worked. This can have a huge impact on work/life separation and make both home and work life difficult for some teachers (and principals). In the area that was the focus of this study, teachers and principals could be provided with a choice of the community in which they live as well as choice of accommodation. This would support teachers' need for mobile autonomy (discussed in detail in Section 2.3.3) and support the TPB (discussed in Section 2.3.4) as they would perceive a level of control when making decisions about where they live, as well as being able to choose the type of accommodation that suits their needs.

Tasmanian tenants are generally required to physically inspect the property prior to signing a lease agreement. In the remote Tasmanian communities however, teachers are allocated a house (usually by the principal) without an opportunity for a prior inspection. This practice affects teachers seeking mobile autonomy. Before teachers even arrive in the community they have lost their independence in deciding for themselves for where and how they will live. If teachers feel they have lost control over the situation, they might not be positive about living in the community, and therefore less likely to stay longer than required. As discussed in Section 2.3.4, the TPB emphasises that the greater the perceived control and the more positive the attitude, the more likely a behaviour will occur. As noted in Section 6.2.1.1, there is a broad range of DoE houses in varying degrees of quality in the remote communities, and teachers do not get a say in which they are assigned, again, removing teachers' capacity to fulfil their need for mobile autonomy, and potentially influencing originally planned behaviour. The data showed there were concerns about mould, heating costs, and the effects of the weather on some of the houses provided. O'Callaghan (2015) found a lack of suitable housing for teachers in remote areas and Lowe (2006) found that many of the houses provided to teachers needed repairing and were, therefore, not considered

an incentive. Lock et al. (2012b) and Lowe (2006) both found that if teachers and principals liked their accommodation it influenced their decision to stay.

5.6 Summary of Chapter 5

This chapter used the qualitative data from the interviews, questionnaires and written responses from community members, past teachers and 2015 teachers, to respond to the second research question:

Why do teachers transfer out of Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

This question was divided into three parts, Section 5.2, addressed 'Why do teachers leave the remote communities?' Section 5.3 reported on 'Why do teachers stay in a remote community for more than 3 years?' and Section 5.4, focused on 'What is it like for teachers to work and live in a remote community? This section was broken into 'working' and 'living' in a remote community with responses related to working in a remote community addressed in Section 5.4.2, and responses related to living in a remote community detailed in Section 5.4.3. Section 5.5, presented a typology of teachers who left, a typology of teachers who stayed and the connections to the experiences of living and working in remote communities. Mobile autonomy, attachment and place attachment, as well as the TPB were discussed in relation to the findings.

Chapter 6 discusses the results for the third research question, 'What strategies and policies have been implemented for attracting and retaining teachers to the Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

Chapter 6

Results and Discussion: What Strategies and Policies have been Implemented for Attracting and Retaining Teachers to Department of Education Schools in Remote Tasmanian Communities?

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reports and discusses the results from the document analysis, interviews, and questionnaires from all participant groups that relate to the third research question: What policies and strategies have been implemented and evaluated for attracting and retaining teachers to Department of Education (DoE) schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

The question is considered in two parts. The first is 'What are the current strategies and practices?', and the second is, 'What views do participants have of the current strategies and practices?' The views were provided by participants during interviews or in responses to open-ended sections of the questionnaires. Quantitative data from questionnaires concerning strategies and/or practices are included with the qualitative data where relevant. Participants' views directly follow the strategy or practice.

As described in Section 3.6.4, the strategies and practices that were in use at the time of this study (2015), were sourced from documents produced or commissioned by the DoE, the Tasmanian Industrial Commission, or the Australian Education Union Tasmanian Branch (AEU). One document, *Schedule of Allowances* (2014c), produced by the DoE required permission for its use in this research and such permission was sought and granted. All other documents used were publicly available. Interview transcripts and questionnaire responses were examined for strategies and procedures and responsibilities of pre-determined stakeholder groups (Section 3.6). In order of the frequency with which they were referred to these stakeholder groups were: the Tasmanian DoE, discussed in Section 6.2; University of Tasmania (UTAS) (Section 6.3); the four remote communities (Section 6.4); and the Australian Education Union (AEU) Tasmanian Branch (Section 6.5). The discussion presented in Section 6.6 highlights the importance of the findings, compares them to existing literature and provides an analysis of them. A summary of the chapter is provided in Section 6.7. Some sub-themes discussed in this chapter are similar to those found in Chapters 4 and 5, as they arose in relation to Research Question 3 as well. As stated in Section 3.8.4, pseudonyms have been used for interview participants and codes for questionnaire respondents.

6.2 Tasmanian Department of Education

The Tasmanian Department of Education (DoE), had a number of procedures and practices relating to the attraction and retention of teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. Interviews provided insights into participants' perceptions of DoE strategies and practices. In addition, publicly available documents such as the DoE's Professional Learning Policy that promotes its Professional Learning Institute, and the document titled, *Developing our Workforce: Teacher Intern Placement Program*, outlining a University of Tasmania (UTAS) intern placement program were informative. Practices current in 2015 are followed by participants views of those practices.

According to the *Schedule of Allowances* (DoE, 2014c) a number of incentives were available to teachers who work in a remote Tasmanian community as well as a more limited number available to some principals. Some of these incentives were provided in accordance with the Teaching Service (Tasmanian Public Sector) Award, while some were not specifically referred to in the agreement. Wendell, the non-school based participant, mentioned incentives sparking interest in people going to the remote communities but as to whether they 'hit the mark or not' he was not so sure. Incentives available and to whom they were available, as well participant views, are discussed in the following seven sub-sections.

6.2.1 Housing.

Housing was provided by the DoE, for principals and teachers in remote locations. In 2010 the DoE instigated a review of their housing. In his report of the review, Guenther (2011) noted that housing was considered by the DoE as one of the incentives available to teachers and principals in remote areas because rent was heavily subsidised. However, he noted that some teachers did not consider housing an incentive, but a given because housing "…facilitated their move or made it easier to make the decision." Approximately 50% of the

teachers who participated in the review considered housing to be an incentive. Teachers who saw housing as an incentive considered the quality of housing to be more important than the amount of rent they paid. Some teachers owned properties elsewhere and without the cheap rent, could not afford to be in the remote community. Guenther (2011) made a number of recommendations regarding housing, one of which was that housing should not be considered a primary incentive for attracting teachers to rural and remote locations.

6.2.1.1 Participant Views of Housing

Views about housing as an incentive were provided by two community members and three past teachers. The nature of the comments varied, with some relating to the quality of the housing and others to the management of the houses. Monica, a community representative mentioned the broad range of houses, "…there's some really lovely department of education cottages or there's some really, really, really ordinary little boxy units." Cathy, Kelli and Jacki, all past teachers, commented on the quality of housing. Jacki said, "The department housing in Fraser and Montana were vaguely the same. The houses weren't delightful." Cathy and Kelli both said that teachers had not looked after houses. Kelli's house was repaired because of this, but according to Kelli, it still wasn't great. Kelli acknowledged that the biggest issue with housing was mould due to the wet and cold weather. As a past principal, Cathy observed that the schools needed money to keep the houses up to date (as described in Section 7.10, principals were landlords and managers of DoE provided accommodation, and were required to maintain the accommodation from an DoE allocated component of the school budget).

6.2.2 Isolation Incentives

Isolated incentive payments (isolation allowance) were paid to teachers in accordance with the Teaching Service Salaries and Conditions of Employment Agreement 2014 (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2014b). Teachers in remote schools as well as in four

other similarly isolated Tasmanian schools, were paid $2546 at the end of each of their first and third years of service. At the end of each of their fourth, fifth and sixth years of service in these schools they received a payment of $5097. Kelli and Wade pointed out these amounts were before tax and hence of less value than they appeared. After 6 years of consecutive service in a remote community, teachers were no longer eligible for the isolated incentive payments and principals were not eligible to receive the isolation incentive at all (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2014b).

6.2.2.1 Participant Views of Isolation Incentives

Kelli, a past teacher, Wade, a 2015 teacher, and Wendell, a non-school based DoE employee, mentioned the isolation incentives. Kelli mentioned that in her first year the isolated incentive was paid in a lump sum which was taxed so she only received half the amount stating, "so when you average that out over per week, you know extra $20 to go down [there] it's a joke." She further mentioned that as a principal of a small remote school and not entitled to incentive payments, she was earning less than a second-year teacher who was in a leadership role below an Assistant Principal. Kelli, who was initially a teacher in the region before taking on a small school principalship there, felt frustrated not to be recognised with an incentive. Wade, a 2015 teacher, had received the isolated incentive after his first year and he too commented on losing half of it in tax. He said, "That two thousand a year or whatever they cover, it's not for me, it's not an incentive, it doesn't go far enough to be worth an incentive." Wendell agreed that the isolation incentives was not enough to attract teachers. He said, "We've done those things, and they're probably still part of the mix but obviously on their own, that's part of the problem they're on their own."

6.2.3 Incentives for Principals

Wendell, a non-school based participant, recalled individualising incentives had been used in the past in order to attract principals for positions in remote communities. As stated in

Section 6.2, he was not sure if the incentives were successful in retaining them. Wendell believed the incentives attracted interest in positions in remote communities but on their own they may not be successful without other supports in place. He continued,

> You can pay someone more, you can give them a car or you can give them a two-year sabbatical when they finish, or a partridge in a pear tree, you can do all those things but if in the middle of winter, it's tough and they're not cutting through and they're isolated, those things probably don't mean a great deal.

Wendell commented that some principals were promised "… good spots …" when they completed their contracts in the remote locations. He noted that principal positions in Tasmania had been reclassified (in 2012), resulting in an increase in pay for principals in remote communities, which he believed for those principals, was fundamentally a financial incentive. The reclassification did not come into effect for a given position, until that position became vacant, either as a fixed term or permanent after the 1st January 2013 (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). This meant principals already in remote communities prior to 1st January 2013 and remained in remote communities after this date, were not eligible for the reclassified payment, regardless of how long they remained in remote communities. It was an increase in pay for new principals to the area compared to their predecessor, but not necessarily an incentive for them to go to the remote communities because principals of schools with same classification elsewhere in the state, were paid the same. The reclassification was a disincentive for principals already in the region to stay because they were not eligible for the increase unless they gained a principal position elsewhere.

6.2.4 Additional Incentives Provided

There were additional incentives provided to teachers that were not discussed during the interviews or mentioned by questionnaire respondents. These incentives were identified

in the documentation mentioned in Section 6.2, and are presented in the following sections, Sections 6.2.5 to 6.2.7.

6.2.5 District Allowance

At the time of this study, a district allowance was provided as compensation to DoE employees. It was based on the Zone Tax Office (ZTO) concession provided in recognition of isolation and designed to offset the high cost of living associated with living in particular geographic zones (Sanyal, 2015). The Tasmanian DoE provided two different flat rates. One rate was for single teachers, without dependents, and the other was for teachers with immediate family members such as a spouse or partner, children (including stepchildren and foster children) living with them. The allowance was paid in accordance with the Teaching Service (Tasmanian Public Sector) Award section of the Tasmanian Industrial Commission under category B "Locations under the Commonwealth Taxation Zone B" or Zone Tax Offset (ZTO). All of the schools in the remote communities in this study were in the ZTO Zone B. According to the Industrial Award (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2014a) employees with dependent relatives received $1861 annually and single employees, with no dependants, received $931 annually at the time of this study (2015). Teachers and principals were eligible to receive the district allowance. No views regarding this payment were provided by participants in this study but as this payment was broken into fortnightly payments and taxed, teachers may not have been aware of it, or they considered payment not significant enough to warrant comment. Other incentives provided by DoE and mentioned in the document *Relocation Expenses Procedures (2014b)* but not mentioned by participants are presented in Table 6.1. At the time of this study, available incentives were not promoted to principals or teachers relocating to the remote community and therefore they might not have been aware of them.

Table 6.1

Department of Education Provided Incentives

Incentive	Description
Relocation Expenses	Teachers and principals relocating to and from DoE remote schools are eligible for reimbursement of their relocation expenses if a professional removalist is used. Reimbursement for expenses incurred in the sale or purchase of property such as realtor and solicitor's fees, stamp duty and advertising expenses can be paid if it is deemed necessary to purchase a property moving in to or out of the remote communities.
Depreciation Allowance	A depreciation allowance may be paid for the insured value of the furniture and personal items relocated to and from the remote location. As this reimbursement comes under the definition of an income by the Australian Taxation Office (ATO) the payment received must be declared to the ATO.
Special Accommodation Payment	If temporary accommodation is required prior to taking up a principal place of residence teachers may be reimbursed for up to 12 weeks when relocating to and from the remote location. A teacher requesting this payment must provide evidence the temporary accommodation was necessary.
Accommodation and Meal Expenses En Route	If meals and accommodation are required during travel to the new location, to and from the remote location. Reimbursement may be available if teachers provide the evidence of the expense.
Displacement Allowance	If a teacher or principal is promoted (but not at their own request), retires due to ill health, or is made redundant, and requires reimbursement for the removal of furniture and personal items, storage expenses (if required), or interim accommodation, they may be reimbursed under the displacement allowance. This includes displacement to and from the remote location. The displacement allowance is paid to family members should a teacher or principal located in a remote community pass away.

6.2.6 Professional Development Support

Professional development (PD) across Tasmania had changed from a school or regionally based model, to one driven by the Professional Learning Institute (PLI), based in Bowen, which is approximately 300km from Gould, the closest remote community in this study. The PLI developed, brokered and conducted research informed PD programs for the DoE (Tasmanian Government, 2017). The majority of the PD provided by the PLI was offered in major centres, with limited opportunities in the remote communities sited in this study (Tasmanian Government, 2018). Wendell said,

> …we've moved to a more centrally driven Professional Learning Institute investment and we're using the institute as the vehicle to provide and drive the professional learning on a whole range of levels and pulling in expertise and talking to people. I get all that. I'm not critical of that. But in essence it looks to me now, to be more of a model driven from a point somewhere than one which might be more regionally based or locally based.

Wendell believed that because PD was driven by the Professional Learning Institute based in Bowen, PD specific to the remote communities was not as prevalent as it had been. Wendell's comment connects with current research regarding professional isolation and will be further discussed in Section 6.6.

6.2.7 Teacher Intern Placement Program (TIPP)

In April 2015, the DoE and UTAS launched the Teacher Intern Placement Programme for the 2016 school year (DoE, 2015). The programme provided final year pre-service teachers (PSTs) an opportunity to be placed full-time in a school while they completed their university study. The ethos of the programme was to provide PSTs with access to experienced teachers to enable the PSTs to embed practical teaching skills into their practice. TIPP targeted priority teaching areas and locations, specifically, mathematics and science in

rural and regional areas. There were 40 positions available across Tasmania including in the remote schools that were the focus of this study. In addition to placement in a school, participants received a $15 000 financial incentive, a guaranteed job in a DoE school after successfully completing the programme, provisional teacher registration for the last two terms of the school year, participation in a DoE's graduate teacher induction program, access to additional PD (it was not stated what the additional PD was, or what it was additional to), and accommodation and travel support where applicable (DoE, 2015). The nature and extent of the additional PD was not clear from the documentation about the program, nor were details of the circumstances under which accommodation and travel support might be applicable.

The next section discusses the procedures and practices of UTAS in regard to the attraction of teachers to the remote communities.

6.3 University of Tasmania

The University of Tasmania (UTAS) has been recognised as a key stakeholder for this study because the majority of teachers who worked in the remote region that was the focus of this study, undertook their teacher education at UTAS (Section 2.6). A number of researchers have identified the key role universities have in preparing teachers to accept a tenure in a remote community (e.g. Barley, 2009; Beutel, Adie, & Hudson, 2011; Kline et al., 2013). At the time of this study UTAS provided 4-year Bachelor of Education programs for prospective early childhood and primary teachers, and a 2-year Master of Teaching program for prospective primary teachers and secondary teachers with existing bachelors degrees or equivalent. The course structures were generalised with none focussed specifically on living or working in remote communities (UTAS, 2018a, 2018b, 2018c). UTAS practices aimed at encouraging PSTs to undertake a PE in remote schools were sourced from UTAS website,

documents produced by the DoE, as well as interview data from teacher educators (TEs), PSTs, and responses to open-ended questionnaire items. These practices are reported in the following section.

6.3.1 Preparation, Supervision, Support and Debriefing

Prior to a professional experience (PE) placement, a PE Coordinator at UTAS was available as the first point of contact for PSTs regarding their placements (UTAS, 2017b). During the PE placement PSTs had access to a mentor who was required to maintain regular contact with the PST via phone or email whilst the PST was undertaking the placement. In some circumstances, the mentor visited and observed the PST during the placement (UTAS, 2017b). Practices regarding PE placement prior to 2017 were not available.

The questionnaire for TEs included an open-ended section seeking their knowledge of any preparation PSTs experienced for teaching in remote communities. Five of the seven respondents were unaware or unsure of any preparation, and two suggested the preparation was no different from preparing them to teach anywhere else. One respondent stated,

> I am not really aware of any specific opportunities where students have access to preparation for teaching [in the remote communities]. There is an elective unit dealing with Teaching in Remote Locations that is available to students wishing to pursue a career in a remote location. (TE1)

During his interview, Ronan, a TE, commented that although lecturers don't have a direct responsibility for PE, they had an interest in preparing PSTs for their placement in terms of answering any questions they might have. One of the questions on the TE questionnaire asked how supervision and support were provided to PSTs undertaking a PE in the remote communities. TE1 noted that supervision was provided according to the guidelines and there was no specific support provided for PSTs in the remote communities. On the questionnaire, TE2, listed several ways in which support was provided. These included: preparation

provided by the PE leaders, the availability of university mentors via email, visits from university mentors if the PST was undertaking PE 3, and PSTs have the opportunity to contact PE support staff at any stage during their placement via phone or email. In his interview, Adam said he had been to the remote communities' schools in a supervisory role. He had a personal contact in the remote communities at the time and he believed this helped. Adam said that at one stage, one of the university campuses had had a member of the faculty from one of the remote communities. In regard to this he remarked,

> …he had a really good insight into the [region] and he also had a good capacity to realistically support and say to students, 'You know go to the [region] because this and this. I've spent so many years down there.' So, he was a good authentic person to talk about going to the [region].

In regard to debriefing following PE in the remote communities, TE2, stated, "Opportunities are provided in several units of study to discuss challenges, successes, experiences, learnings, and future goals from PE placements. This is not exclusive to those doing placements in remote schools."

6.3.1.1 Participant Views of Preparation, Supervision, Support and Debriefing

Responses in regard to teacher education focused on preparation to teach in the remote communities. Qualitative data were sourced from interviews with past teachers and one PST. Relevant quantitative data from questionnaires, completed by past teachers, 2015 teachers, TEs, and final year PSTs, are provided at the end of this section. One past teacher, PT13, was not very positive about teacher education preparing her to teach in any location. She wrote, "95% percent of what you learn at university has nothing to do with being a classroom teacher" and three past teachers could not recall any specific preparation to teach in the remote communities with one commenting that special preparation was not required. Three past teachers named issues they encountered in the remote communities for which they

believed they had not been prepared. PT15 mentioned, “The children in the remote communities needed lots of literacy support which I felt I hadn't been trained adequately to tackle.” PT14 listed a range of things that he believed were lacking in PSTs preparation. He mentioned,

> behaviour management, impact of trauma, catering for diverse ability and mixed grade levels. No emphasis on absenteeism, working/living in remote areas. Course did not have enough practical links to life in the real world of teaching - too far removed from reality.”

PT5 emphasised the need for more preparation for living and teaching in remote communities. She stated,

> Teacher training doesn't prepare you for working and living in a remote town with high levels of unemployment and all the socio-economic needs that this entails. Nor does it prepare you for working in a school with all beginning teachers where besides the principal the most senior teacher is only 2yrs out of training. It was very much a sink or swim situation.

One respondent, PT12, recalled, “… having someone as a guest speaker towards the end of my teacher education talking about teaching in remote schools. I can recall the mention of small class sizes, incentive payments, relocation expenses covered, teacher housing.” Suzanne, a PST could not recall her course including a focus on the challenges or advantages of living and working in a rural area.

The questionnaires asked teachers to rate on a five point Likert-type scale, from very ineffective (1), to very effective (5) the effectiveness of their teacher education preparation in relation to teach in a remote school. From the 24 responses, the mean score was 2.75 with a standard deviation of 1.03. A oneway ANOVA analysis showed there was no significant

difference between the mean scores of past teachers and 2015 teachers with both groups on average, rating preparation for teaching in a remote school as ineffective.

PST and TE questionnaires included topics that might be included in teacher education courses to prepare PSTs for teaching in remote schools. The topics, sourced from existing questionnaires, were: Strategies and teaching methods for teaching multi-grade classes; Remote and isolated Tasmanian communities; Expectation and opportunity for community involvement in a remote school; Cultural adjustment related to living and working in a remote community: and Specific issues teachers might encounter in a remote school. PSTs and TEs were asked to select how each of the topics was included in the course and chose from: not included, not sure, in an elective unit, a core unit, or both an elective and core unit. Table 6.2 shows the topics included in teacher education according to PSTs, and Table 6.3 shows topics included in the courses of TE participants.

Table 6.2

Pre-Service Teacher Responses to Courses Included in Teacher Education (n=19)

Courses	Not Included	Not Sure	Elective Unit	Core Unit	Elective and Core Unit
Strategies and teaching methods for teaching multi-grade classes	12	2	3	2	
Remote and isolated Tasmanian communities	15	1	1	1	1
Expectation and opportunity for community involvement in a remote school	13	1	3	2	
Cultural adjustment related to living and working in a remote community	13	2	3	1	
Specific issues teachers might encounter in a remote school	11	1	3	4	

Table 6.3

Teacher Educators Responses to Courses Included in their Courses (n=19)

Courses	Not Included	Elective Unit	Core Unit	Elective and Core Unit
Strategies and teaching methods for teaching multi-grade classes	4		2	1
Remote and isolated Tasmanian communities	5	1	1	
Expectation and opportunity for community involvement in a remote school	7			
Cultural adjustment related to living and working in a remote community	4	1	2	
Specific issues teachers might encounter in a remote school	4	1	2	

6.3.2 Opportunity for a Remote Placement

The questionnaire for TEs included an open-ended section seeking their assessment on a 5 point Likert-type scale of the effectiveness of the university in ensuring PSTs could access a PE placement in the remote communities. They were asked to explain their response. In regards to the effectiveness, two rated the university as effective, four rated it as neither effective or ineffective, and one ineffective. Comments explaining the 'effective' ratings included, "Programs are running, and mechanisms are in place to provide support to PSTs in these schools." TE5 chose the 'ineffective' rating and noted," I don't think the university has been sufficiently proactive." In interviews, the participants were asked what role they believed the university had in encouraging PSTs to undertake PE in the remote communities. Adam explained how the cohort of students at the university had changed as some were based in other of Australian states with a few students from overseas. In terms of those who lived in Tasmania he said, "… a lot of them have very narrow viewpoints as to where they see

themselves at the end of their training." It appears that he believed part of the role of the university is to encourage PSTs to consider looking beyond their local context when considering their placement. Adam said the university had a policy of not placing students in schools more than 65km of their residence, but at the same time they encouraged students to go beyond this. He observed that when sending PSTs to the remote communities it was more successful and easier to send them to one of the two private schools there because these schools had "… a more stable staff and we're able to build that rapport more easily." Adam mentioned the provision of accommodation in the remote communities but was of the understanding that this was only available to students in their final year. He summed up his response by stating, "I guess the university has a role, an important role in encouraging PSTs to undertake their placements in a variety of places and the [remote communities] would certainly come into that idea." In his interview, Ronan suggested there were formal and informal roles regarding encouraging PSTs to undertake PE in the remote communities. The PE leaders had "… a clear role to understand the opportunities in the remote communities and to make students aware of what the opportunities are and the benefits" and advise and respond to enquiries. Ronan recognised the Professional Experience Task Group as having a formal role as they developed the strategies around placements. He believed lecturers had an informal role that was more around incidental conversations.

6.3.2.1 Participant Views of the Opportunities for a Remote Placement

In relation to the providing opportunities for PSTs to undertake a PE placement in the remote communities, the TE questionnaire sought beliefs about the importance to the university of the government schools in the remote communities. Four of the responses to this item alluded to all schools in Tasmania being equally important to the university. Examples are:

> They have the right of acquiring quality teachers that are capable of delivering effective learning experiences for all students that address both the broader goals and purposes of education as well as the needs and goals of the local communities. Remote schools do offer unique learning experiences for PSTs that city schools cannot offer. (TE4)
>
> These schools are important to the educational fabric of the state. From an equity perspective, we are only as good as the most challenged of our schools. All children deserve a good education and supporting beginning teachers to become familiar with more remote schools, their students and communities. (TE5)

6.3.3 Professional Experience Placements

Adam described the restrictions on where PSTs could undertake a professional experience (PE) placement. For example, they could not undertake PE in the school if: they went to it as a child; their parent was a teacher there; a brother or sister was a student there; or if there was any other identified conflict of interest. As mentioned in Section 6.3.2, Adam stated there was a policy of not sending students beyond 65km of their residence. He mentioned that the final PE was close to the end of the year, and that this timing would assist schools because by the end of the year, schools would know if they had vacancies to fill for the following year. Further comments regarding PE in the remote communities, included cost pressures for the university. Three TEs responded that they were not sure or unaware of any costs to the university. One remarked on the cost of car rental to visit PSTs during PE in the remote communities, three mentioned the time for travel, and two mentioned the cost of accommodation. TEs described encouraging students to undertake varied PE placements. TE1 said, “All schools have different opportunities for students and it is important that students have opportunities to experience schools in many locations.” In his interview, Adam noted how he had encouraged some students to broaden their outlook, perspective and

experiences by suggesting remote places. Ronan described encouraging PSTs to have a range of experiences. He advised that PE should include "… something rural and isolated, something from different socio-economic status, the private or an independent school, and something out of your year level you know to vary that so they have a bit of experience over the course." He said that he told PSTs,

> …although there might be a bit of adjustment to remove yourself from where you live for a few weeks, the benefits of actually being immersed in a place for a series of weeks without the kinds of interruptions of regular home life can actually mean you have a really good experience …

He questioned their reason for choosing teaching as a career, and telling PSTs that if they, "… have a sense of commitment to Tasmania as a state then undertaking a placement [there] or another rural and isolated setting can be a great way to contribute to the state."

Three TEs commented on the PSTs undertaking PE in the remote communities that were the focus of this study. For example, in his interview, Adam described how the remote schools had been proactive in offering to accept PSTs for PE and were able to provide them with accommodation, which was important. One of the TEs remarked on the schools providing a unique learning experience, and the other PST educator, TE5, identified that any distant placement is expensive and challenging for PSTs stating, "This is an area that is not as well supported as it could be."

6.3.4 Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools Program (PEIRS)

The PEIRS program was a partnership between the DoE and UTAS, aimed at encouraging final year PSTs to undertake a PE in a participating rural or isolated school. The program provided support for accommodation and travel for PSTs who needed to relocate in order to undertake the placement. Schools with a known vacancy for the following year were

encouraged to nominate to take a PST. In accordance with the program, schools arranged and paid for the accommodation of the PST, reimbursed PSTs for the cost of 3 return trips during the 5 or 6-week placement, and covered any other costs associated with the program. Schools provided a welcome package consisting of tea, coffee, bread, butter and milk (and were able to seek reimbursement from the DoE up to $50 for these). The responsibility of the PST was to nominate to undertake a PE in a participating school and to contact the school to confirm that support and accommodation provisions were available. The PEIRS program did not cover the PSTs ongoing grocery, telephone, entertainment or daily travel costs. Adam explained the information was sent to PSTs "… in the blurb that goes out …" to fourth year students when they applied for their PE placement. Adam was aware the information was on the university website. The questionnaire for TEs, included an open-ended question about how the PEIRS program was provided. Of the seven who responded, two said they had not heard of the program, two others hadn't promoted the program, and three provided examples of how they had promoted the program. TE1 did it, "By discussing with individual students if required." Another educator, TE2, wrote, "When pre-service teachers have asked advice on where to undertake placements, I have recommended or encouraged consideration of an isolated and/or rural school and suggested that they enquire about the PEIRS Program." The third commented, "In my unit I have embedded material that relates to rural and isolated schools. I have encouraged students to think about rural placements." (TE5) In the questionnaire PSTs were asked about their awareness of the PEIRS program. Of the 19 respondents, only one indicated awareness of the program. Similarly, in her interview, Suzanne, a PST, said,

> There's been no mention at all that I can recall through my course so far about the Tasmanian remote schools in particular. When I did the survey and it mentioned

about the support to do practicums and the PEIRS … That was the first that I've ever heard of that program."

6.3.4.1 Participant Views of the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools Program (PEIRS)

In their questionnaire, TEs were asked where in their PST education programs the PEIRS program should be available and why. Table 6.4 shows the responses. The numbers refer to the sequence of PEs in the 4-year B.Ed. program.

Table 6.4

University of Tasmania Pre-Service Teacher Educators Views for which Professional Experience (PE) the PEIRS program should be included

Educator	PE	Reason for Choice
TE1	3 and 4	These experiences are longer in duration and gives students a better idea of what it is like to teach in such a location and it may encourage them to consider it after they have completed their study.
TE2	1, 2, 3 and 4	Any of the placements might be a suitable opportunity, depending on the individual's previous experience, current context, and professional goals upon graduation.
TE3	2, 3 and 4	I think students who are not used to being in the more isolated areas should have some time in a school before going out to an isolated school. Otherwise, there may be too much for the students to deal with at once.
TE4	4	The pre-service teachers get to stay longer in the school. That gives them time to settle in and get to know the school community.
TE5	3 and 4	I think more experienced preservice teachers are better able to handle alternative placements. It is important for them to establish core skills first closer to home.
TE6	3	Unfamiliar with the program so this is an arbitrary response.
TE7	1, 2 3 and 4	Students should be encouraged to have at least one experience.

As stated in Section 6.3.4, information regarding the PEIRS program was sent to fourth year students when they applied for their placements and it was available on the

Faculty of Education website. The PST who was aware of the PEIRS program thought it would be best in PE2 because it would be nice to have an option. When asked if they would have liked to know about PEIRS earlier, 17 agreed they would and when asked in which year of study (first, second or third) they would like to have known about PEIRS, 13 chose first year, and four chose second year. The respondents were not provided with the opportunity to explain their choice but, seven of the 13 respondents who selected the first year were undertaking a 2-year Master of Teaching course. The four respondents who chose the second year to be informed about the PEIRS program were all undertaking the 4-year Bachelor of Education (Primary) course.

6.3.5 Historical and Current Practices

TEs commented on past practices in relation to teacher education in Tasmania. Ronan stated that historically in Tasmania teachers undertook 'teacher training' where,

> …everyone who did the course and completed it satisfactorily would be posted to their schools. Often that would include an isolated or rural setting or a school [in the remote communities]. So, the majority of people who came into the teacher education courses, kind of assumed that they had a guarantee of work and they know that it's going to be somewhere that they probably haven't lived, they haven't experienced and it's going to be their immersion into the profession.

Ronan mentioned that the current cohort of PSTs was more diverse than in the past, there were more PSTs than in previous years, and they were at different life stages and hence, the percentage of those willing to relocate had declined. TE2 noted the changes to PSTs over time. He mentioned that in the past PSTs were young and without family whereas now some PSTs have had previous careers and have a family. This makes it more difficult for those PSTs to undertake a placement in remote areas. TE2 stated that there are no guaranteed job assignments at the end of the course like there used to be. He argued that because of this,

undertaking a remote placement might increase the likelihood of getting employment after graduation but that because there is no necessity to accept a contract in an isolated area, there is no reason to undertake a placement in one.

In summary, practice for teacher education and teachers in Tasmania at the time of the study, provided very little focus on rural and remote education. PSTs were not required to undertake a core unit in rural or remote teaching, they are not required to undertake a rural or remote PE placement, and graduates are not required to accept a remote PE placement in a rural or remote school and if they do, are not required to stay longer than 3 years.

6.3.5.1 Participant Views of the Role of the University in Attracting Teachers to the Remote Communities

An open-ended question for TEs sought their thoughts on the role of the university in attracting teachers to the remote communities. All but two TEs could not see a role for UTAS in attracting teachers to remote communities. Comments included,

> The Faculty of Education does not have a responsibility to attract teachers to government or non-government schools [in the remote Tasmanian communities] or elsewhere. It should, however, be prepared to collaborate with all educational systems to promote and sustain teacher requirements. In some respects, it is doing that by introducing specialist Bachelor of Education courses, such as the Maths Science Specialisation. The Faculty has a role in promoting working in government, non-government, remote and non-remote schools. None of these should be given priority over the others. (TE4)

TE5 had a different view to that of TE4,

> I would like to see a cohort of students who are committed to teaching in rural and remote schools. There should be specific training for this cohort and incentives to

> attract students to these locations. In addition, better incentives to keep teachers in schools such as those [in the remote communities] would also be important. Finally, ways of attracting high school aged students in remote schools to consider teaching as a career might also be useful.

Adam believed the university had a shared role with the schools in the remote communities.

6.4 The Role of the Four Remote Communities

Strategies and practices for the remote communities focused on welcoming and retaining teachers in the community. Data were sourced from the interviews with community participants. The strategies and practices recognised by community members included: community events and publications, events to support new teachers, a welcome reception, and parents engaging teachers. These are discussed in turn in the following section.

6.4.1 Community Events and Publications

In one focus group interview the responses were related to what was already available in the specific town, that teachers could become involved in. For example, Harriet discussed the garden club and flower show and how teachers are encouraged to have students involved in the flower show. She mentioned the availability of a pamphlet promoting the community. Bianca mentioned sport was available, in particular netball for female teachers. Monica and Wanita mentioned a New Residents Kit with Wanita saying it was advertised on the radio but was only available to residents who purchased property and Monica stated it was not up to date. Neither respondent indicated what the kit contained.

6.4.2 Events to Support New Teachers

Perry mentioned a past event designed to support new teachers. He described how a local mining company had provided tours for teachers including an underground tour.

Teachers learned about mining as well as about the community. Danelle mentioned that she and another woman from the Parents and Friends Association of the local school had organised a dinner for the teaching staff at Gould in 2014. She described the dinner as follows,

> (the dinner) … was really well supported. We had it at the clubrooms and they enjoyed that. We were keen to make that like a once a month because the idea started because a lot of the teachers like, "Wish we could have mum's roast." They missed that so we did a big roast up at the club rooms. But it's just it was too much for two people and we couldn't get the support to have that again.

Others were unaware of activities in these towns. For example, Wanita, said, "Activities I'm not aware of. They've never held any here, new teacher welcoming afternoon or anything like that."

Three community participants were negative about past practices in relation to including teachers in activities. Perry stated that teachers were not supported well by the community and Warren said there was a belief that, "… if they're not living here 365 days of the year you're not part of us and you're not welcome and it's just not true or it shouldn't be true." Frank provided his view of the support for teachers, "My experience there is said the bulk of the parents just want to sit back and whinge and moan and complain about what a crappy job you're doing teaching our kids."

6.4.3 Welcome Reception.

In response to Wanita's statement regarding a welcoming afternoon reception (Section 6.4.2), Nicolas said that the council had provided a such an event for new teachers from all four communities at some stage but not in the previous 12 to 18 months. Danelle mentioned that an afternoon tea had in the past, been provided to police, teachers and hospital staff new to the remote communities. According to Perry there had been two welcome

receptions that representatives from community organisations such as Lions, Rotary and the football club were invited to attend. Frank mentioned the welcome reception that had been held and that anyone that was new to any of the towns in the area was invited. He said the event was held early in the year because staff changes usually happened around Christmas time. Perry had mentioned there had not been a recent welcome reception because management had changed.

Perry said that originally the idea of a welcome reception had not been supported by the local Council. Frank confirmed they did it, but "…did a lousy job of it." Perry stated there had been a second one but that it was totally disorganised. Monica recalled attending a welcome reception but she felt,

> a little uncomfortable because there was no, there was almost, look put a whole lot of new people in a room together. There was no real format. There was sort of, I think a little bit of a speech or something and then a bit of afternoon tea or supper and that was about it."

Danelle thought the welcome reception was held too late in the year and it had not been effective.

6.4.4 Parents Engaging with Teachers

Two participants discussed how people new to the area were invited to participate in community activities. Wanita mentioned that some parents introduce themselves to the teachers and question the teachers to get to know them. Once parents got to know a teacher's interests they would involve them. Wanita stated, "I do find that it's a lot of the parents that reach out to them first and then from there they kind of integrate into the community." Another community member, Heath, made reference to inviting a new police officer to play cricket. He believed that getting involved in sport was the best way to get involved in the town and to get to know people in the community.

6.5 The Australian Education Union (AEU) Tasmanian Branch

The most discussed aspect of the AEU role in the attraction and retention of teachers was the Teacher Transfer/Assignment of Permanent Duties Industrial Agreement 2013 industrial agreement, a publicly available document endorsed by the AEU and administered by the DoE. The other focus of the role of the AEU in this section is on beginning teachers' because schools in remote communities are mostly staffed with beginning teachers.

According to the 2013 Annual Report (AEU Tasmania Branch, 2013) the AEU Tasmanian Branch had developed a new program, New Educators Network (NEN) aimed at encouraging new members to be involved in the union. They had created a NEN Facebook page, and renamed a quarterly publication 'NENwork'. They hosted events for new educators in Hardwicke (161km from McDonald), Brady (256km from McDonald) and Bowen (249km from Gould). The industrial agreement is discussed in the next section.

6.5.1 Teacher Transfer/ Assignment of Permanent Duties Industrial Agreement 2013

The Teacher Transfer/ Assignment of Permanent Duties Industrial Agreement 2013 (industrial agreement) was the most recent industrial agreement at the time of this study. The industrial agreement defined an 'eligible service transfer'. In Tasmania, schools were classified as Level A, B, C or D according to various criteria, one of which was geographical location. The remote schools in this study were classified as Level D (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). An 'eligible service transfer' for teachers in non-promoted positions was earned after 3 years of service in a Level D school. Teachers who completed eligible service in a Level D school could not be required to undertake another appointment in another Level D school during their career (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013).

One of the primary goals of the industrial agreement (Goal 7.1.2), was to, "Provide the framework for a fair and equitable assignment of duties to a permanent employee." Another primary goal (Goal 7.1.3), was to, "Ensure that all students are educated by high-performing teachers of comparable skills and experience and all school and college communities have access to appropriately skilled teachers." These goals are examined in the Discussion section, Section 6.6, in relation to the schools that were the focus of this study.

One of the key principles relating to the primary goals of the industrial agreement was "that all teachers will undertake eligible service during their career in either a Level B, C or D school/college" (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). The DoE may or may not enforce this key principle, with the outcome that experienced teachers without prior appointment in a Level D school, are not required by the DoE to ever work in one. Eligible service allowed for teachers to request a transfer to teach in another school anywhere in Tasmania, subject to an available vacancy (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). This aspect of the industrial agreement supported the attraction of beginning teachers to remote regions but supported neither the attraction of experienced teachers nor retention of teachers beyond 3 years. The teacher transfer industrial aspect of the agreement is discussed further in Section 6.6.

In regard to the effects of the transfer policy, Wendell, the non-school based participant, mentioned the quality and continuity of teachers. He acknowledged that were "… a lot of good people …" in the remote communities but on balance there was an insufficient quality of teaching because of teacher experience, the level of support, and other factors such as continuity,

> So, when you ask about 1, 2 or 3-year trained, or experienced teachers in their first 3 years, or ask about first year out principals, or whatever a core component of what's

> missing, is access to that kind of experience…The need for it is sometimes even sharper in those schools than in some others…

Wendell believed that for most people it takes at least 4 years to consider they can teach, "… teachers will talk about it takes about that kind of time to get somewhere near being confident enough in your own teaching let alone, let alone trying to assist other people." Kelli, a past teacher, reflected on the effects of the 3-year transfer policy on students,

> One of the big concerns that I have is the quality of the learning of the students. I know that if I had a child, there would be absolutely no way that I would be happy for them to have an education [there] from what I saw when I was down there. It was because there was so many beginning teachers trying to find their feet and there was a lack of support, there was a lack of mentors…

Another past teacher, PT11, provided an insight to how the transfer policy affected him, stating, "colleagues are constantly leaving the area. Networks are continually having to be remade as staffing changes." This concern was discussed in Section 4.4. There were mixed views about the transfer policy from community members. Bianca, a community member brought up the 3-year cycle of teachers believing that was just the way it was. One of her comments was, "…they do their 3 years and wait for the next ones to come and then they do their 3 years." Bianca and Heath both thought that 3 years was not long enough. Financial incentives had been discussed by the group and Heath thought,

> … it helps with the continuity of that teacher. I get tired of seeing new teachers come and go every year, every 2 years, 3 years say and you know over that 3 years they've turned into a good teacher and you can see them grow as well.

Bianca mentioned not liking change, getting comfortable with the teachers and principal, and then suddenly it's new. Cindy explained why 3 years should be the minimum,

> Well I think it's essential really that as a minimum … a lot of them are first year teachers so you're still going to getting quite an experienced teacher for that three years so if they were less than that you're just be getting first year teachers every year.

In contrast to those comments, three community members thought 3 years was too long, especially if the teacher was miserable. Joan stated, "… 3 years is a long time if you're really not happy in the school … you could have one very miserable teacher for 3 years and makes the children suffer in school." Warren thought having miserable teachers stay for 3 years was a terrible idea because it would lead to other problems. Nicolas, who shared Warren's concerns, stated,

> I thought that would've been very, very detrimental. I'm not sure whether that's the case or not, I would not have a clue, but I presume the education system must cater for that. I would've thought. I hope they do anyhow.

I was in a situation that was similar to the concerns raised by the community members. I was granted a conversion to permanency at the end of the 1995 school year on the condition I accepted a placement in one of the remote communities in this study for the following 2 years. I was initially told I would need to remain for 2 years because I had worked in one of the other remote communities in this study in 1992. I was more than happy to accept this conditional component to my permanency because I had thoroughly enjoyed my time in the region in 1992 and it was not by choice that I was moved out of the school. I was expecting a similar experience albeit in a different school. However, due to the style of leadership the experience I had in the second school was at the other end of the enjoyment spectrum compared to my first experience. In 1997, (my second year and originally agreed final year in the school) I received a letter and a phone call informing me the rules had changed and teachers were required to complete 3 consecutive years in a remote community and therefore the year I had completed in 1992 no longer counted and I had to stay for another year in

order to keep my permanency. I was devastated. I had not enjoyed my time at all in the school. The parents and students were fantastic but I really disliked the leadership and had been counting down my days to leave. After attempts to negotiate a transfer with various DoE representatives based on the original agreement failed, I decided to write directly to the then Director of Education (the highest position in the DoE at the time) outlining my situation, my attempts to negotiate to transfer, and my unhappiness regarding the change of rule. I was fortunate to receive a response to my letter and was assured by the Director that the original agreement would be honoured and I would be granted a transfer at the end of the year without losing my permanent status. I cannot imagine how I would have been mentally had I been required to stay another year in order to keep my permanency (I would have done) and the effect this would have had on the students.

Five community members, two past teachers, and Wendell, the non-school based DoE employee, mentioned having young staff or young teachers in the schools. Joan stated, "We've always seemed to get first year teachers and that's happened like that for years." Frank said, "They're generally younger teachers that are sent there, which again I think is part of the problem." Wendell remarked on the error of persisting with assigning inexperienced teachers to the remote communities because he believed,

> …it's an incredibly challenging start for any teacher, and we put kids, we put young people, into challenging urban schools with similar problems but so many more supports inside and outside of school for them… and yet we put people [there], who have nowhere near consolidated the craft of teaching, and we've been continuing to do that…you could draw a line, on say the socio-economic profile and challenges, the challenge profile has just increased exponentially, and yet we've continued to do that, and I think we've probably underestimated the potential damage of that.

6.6 Discussion

Strategies and practices that have been implemented in Tasmania for attracting teachers to the remote communities, and retaining them there, are similar to those implemented nationally and internationally. This section discusses practices used in Tasmania as reported in this chapter in relation to the literature. Section 6.6.1, discusses housing and the connection it has with place attachment. Section 6.6.2, presents the findings of financial incentives and how they influence mobile autonomy. The irony of the terms 'permanent' and 'permanency' is discussed in Section 6.6.3 in relation to the Teacher Transfer/ Assignment of Permanent Duties Industrial Agreement 2013, and how this agreement affects teachers' and students' abilities to form attachments based on Bowlby's attachment theory. Section 6.6.4 discusses different types of isolation, and how current practice of providing permanency essentially accepts an unproblematic notion of 'isolation'. The different types of isolation used in this study include: physical, psychological, interpersonal (alternatively referred to as familial isolation), cultural, personal, intellectual (including professional and leadership isolation), and financial isolation. Links between isolation and the inability to form place attachment are discussed. Section 6.6.5 focuses on teacher education and the background for recommending place-based education be included in teacher education courses. Because this chapter focuses on strategies and practices implemented in Tasmania for attracting teachers to the remote communities, there are no overarching themes as with the Chapters 4 and 5. As mentioned in the descriptions for each Section, the connection between the strategies and practices, and the theoretical frameworks are discussed where applicable. Suggestions and recommendations for improving practices are provided in Chapter 7.

6.6.1 Housing

Strategies and practices implemented by the DoE for attracting teachers to and retaining them in the region included offering subsidised housing. Guenther (2011) recommended housing not be considered an incentive for attracting teachers to the remote communities and Lyons (2009) reported that housing was one of the least influential factors for attracting teachers to remote areas. He noted that it was more influential in attracting beginning teachers, rather than experienced teachers. Participants in this study concurred with Guenther's (2011) in not considering the provision of housing to be an incentive. Housing in the remote communities was reported in this study as varied in style. For example, as stated in Section 4.3.6, housing in the remote communities included three bedroom houses, two bedroom co-joined units, and single bedroom flats. Section 6.2.1.1, included concerns about the type of housing, with some described as "…boxy…" and mould in some of the houses. The houses provided "...weren't delightful…" (Jacki) and "…not great…" (Kelli). As mentioned in Section 2.3.5, Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) found house attachment was linked to social attachments, and social attachment was stronger than physical attachment in the formation of place attachment. Additionally, Lewicka (2010) found, the quality or type of housing, as well as the quality of the surrounding environment influenced place attachment.

In terms of retaining teachers in the remote communities, the type and conditions of housing provided to teachers, according to Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) and Lewicka (2010) would impact on the development of place attachment and subsequently influence the retention of teachers. Therefore, regardless of any other practice in place, if housing is not "…delightful…" or "…great…" it is more likely teachers will choose to leave after 3 years. Roberts (2004) noted that houses in some remote Australian communities are typically old houses (over 30 years), with many affected by mould. The housing provided for teachers in the remote Tasmanian communities was similarly over 30 years old.

As stated in Section 6.2.1, Tasmania is the only state in Australia that requires principals to oversee the allocation and management/maintenance of teacher housing. Tasmanian principals have not always had the responsibility for managing and maintaining DOE owned houses. Previously houses were managed remotely by the DoE and maintained by the now defunct, Department of Housing and Construction (Hinds, 1979).

The issue of houses not being looked after by tenants, as raised by Cathy and Kelli (Section 6.2.1.1), might be linked to the use of principals as landlords and managers. Principals in remote communities are often first-time principals, often focused on the challenges and responsibilities associated with running their school, rather than on being a landlord. Principals focus on developing positive working relationships with teaching staff, but the additional responsibility and role of landlord can impact on the development of these relationships. They need, for example, to undertake house inspections which potentially strain the teacher/principal relationship due to privacy and other non-work-related concerns. As stated in Section 6.5.1, Goal 7.1.2 of the Teacher Transfer/ Assignment of Permanent Duties Industrial Agreement 2013 (industrial agreement) was to "Provide the framework for a fair and equitable assignment of duties to a permanent employee." Principals in remote areas are required to be landlords, with this role varying in the level of responsibility based on the number of teachers and houses. Goal 7.1 will not be achieved while principals continue to be landlords because principals with this role do not have an equitable assignment of duties compared to principals in other Tasmanian schools.

6.6.2 Financial Incentives

It is clear that the financial incentives offered to teachers were not working as they were intended – to attract and/or retain teachers in the remote communities. This is an historical concern in Tasmania. As long ago as 1979, Hinds commented on the need to distinguish between having compensation for unequal living and working conditions, and

having a financial incentive to attract and retain teachers. The financial incentives promoted at the time of this study (2015), neither compensated adequately for unequal living and working conditions, nor attracted or retained teachers. Providing an isolation incentive has been used in Tasmania as a means of attracting and retaining teachers for a number of decades but over time confusion between the provision of compensation for unequal living costs, and the provision of an incentive to attract and retain teachers has occurred. Hinds (1979) recommended there be a distinction between these two payments. Decades on, this recommendation has not been implemented. The DoE and the AEU (through the Teaching Service Salaries and Conditions of Employment Agreement 2014, (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2014b)) considered the financial incentive a means to attract and retain teachers because it was additional to their annual wage, and additional to what teachers elsewhere on the same salary increment in the state received. However, participants in this study considered the additional payment as an attempt to compensate for living costs. At the time of this study, teachers in their first 3 years of teaching were earning less than $80 000, and were taxed at a rate of 32.5cents for each $1 (Australian Taxation Office, 2018). Therefore, of the $2546 paid as a financial incentive, teachers in their first and third years received $1700 after tax. If this was, for example spread over 40 school weeks, it equated to $42.50 per week. Teachers paid $20 per week rent with deductions commencing as soon as occupancy of the house commenced (some teachers moved in a week before school commenced). This supports Kelli's claim that teachers were paid an extra $20 a week to work in the remote community. As Kelli and Wade both noted (Section 6.2.2.1), the amount teachers actually received did not cover the additional expenses of living in the communities, for example, groceries and petrol were more expensive, and due to heating needs, power cost more. With this view, the additional payment was not considered by participants to be compensation or a financial incentive.

In the world of mobile autonomy, regardless of what the DoE or AEU consider to be a financial incentive, if teachers do not perceive it as a financial incentive, or as adequate compensation that does not meet the mark, they will be influenced to leave or will not be attracted. As stated in Section 2.3.3, mobile autonomy is a combination of the neoliberal subject (valuing money is one attribute noted by Verdouw (2017)), personal autonomy (making up one's own mind (Buss & Westlund, 2015)) and mobility (the freedom to move from place to place (Freudendal-Pedersen, 2009)). If teachers find the monetary payment does not compensate for the cost of living in the remote communities and they are out of pocket by doing so, they make up their own mind by utilising the available transfer policy and relocate. As this study found, the majority of teachers do leave after 3 years regardless of the additional financial incentive provided to teachers who remain a further 2 years.

The provision of a financial incentive was similar to such provisions in other Australian jurisdictions with attraction and retention issues (Kelly & Fogarty, 2015; The State of Queensland Department of Education Training and Employment, 2014). Lock et al. (2009) found there was a disparity between states and territories in the provision of financial incentives, and White and Kline (2012) found that although there were various government provided, financial incentives aimed at encouraging beginning teachers to work in remote locations, beginning teachers were not usually aware of them unless they discovered them for themselves. They attributed this to university TEs being unfamiliar with them. As reported in Section 6.2.2, the isolation incentive for Tasmanian teachers is available for 5 years (the first year and then the third to sixth years). Teachers in their second year of service do not receive an isolation incentive. The reason for this is that teachers must remain in a remote community to comply with a 3-year service condition when accepting permanency. Therefore, it is considered not necessary to provide a financial incentive (or compensation for living costs) for the second year. As Stokes et al. (1999) found, financial incentives may work to attract

teachers but not to retain them because once the financial scheme has expired, teachers leave. In this study, the majority of teacher participants left after the third year. The taxed isolation incentive offered in the fourth, fifth and sixth years was, therefore, not effective in retaining teachers in the remote communities.

Financial incentives to encourage principals to accept a remote appointment are rare (Franks, 2004). Principals in Tasmania were not entitled to the isolation incentive. At the time of this study there were principals in the remote communities earning less than inexperienced teachers in promoted positions and yet those principals were not eligible for the financial incentive because of their position. This study found that some principals in the larger schools in the remote communities were provided with individually negotiated incentives, but this practice had not been given enough time to be embedded in order to evaluate the effectiveness.

6.6.3 The Teacher Transfer/ Assignment of Permanent Duties Industrial Agreement 2013

Section 6.5.1, discussed aspects of the 2013 industrial agreement relevant to this study. Goal 7.1.3, expresses the aim that all students will be educated by high-performing teachers of comparable skills and experience, and all schools will have access to appropriately skilled teachers. Findings show according to some participants students in the communities in this study did not have access to high-performing teachers of comparable skills and experience compared to students in other schools in Tasmania. In Section 6.3.1.1, PT5 noted she worked in a school with all beginning teachers and other than the principal, the most senior teacher was a second-year teacher. In Section 5.4.2.5, Kelli stated most of the teachers in her school were first, second or third year teachers. These comments do not support the achievement of the first part of Goal 7.1.3 of the industrial agreement. In terms of all schools having access to appropriately skilled teachers, in Section 5.4.2.4, a past teacher,

PT1, described teachers teaching subjects out of area. In this section, it was mentioned that a 2015 teacher, CT7, who was primary trained, reported teaching secondary science. The schools in this study had been unable to attract appropriately trained staff and as CT8 mentioned, at times they are not able to attract enough staff. Another issue with staffing of the schools was a lack of focus on the quality, including leadership positions. None of the comments of the participants suggested that the second part of Goal 7.1.3 had been achieved. Rather, the industrial agreement supports the attraction of beginning teachers but does support retention beyond 3 years, contradicting the goal of providing comparably skilled and experienced teachers as found in other Tasmanian schools. Limiting the requirement of years of service before eligibility for a transfer, and enshrining the limited requirement in the industrial agreement, might have the effect of focusing on the undesirable aspects of such placements, as well as feeding into, amplifying, and contributing to the problem of negative stereotypes.

The 3-year requirement for service in a Level D school prior to eligibility for a transfer was initially introduced to encourage teachers to go the region without the fear of becoming stuck there, but as noted earlier, combining the eligibility for a transfer with permanency as an incentive has a level of irony. Permanent is defined as "…continuing or enduring without fundamental or marked change…" (Merriam-Webster, 2006). Teachers are attracted to the remote areas because "something permanent" (Merriam-Webster, 2006) is offered by the DoE. The concept of permanent as used by the DoE and in the industrial agreement, is only part of the definition. That is, teachers are provided with continuous or enduring employment. However, teachers are placed in a state of impermanence for a minimum of 3 years after gaining permanency. Because the industrial agreement only requires teachers to remain in the remote communities for 3 years, it builds in fundamental or marked change for teachers as well as the communities. This does not equate to permanent

for the communities, or the students, or the teachers whilst there. Teachers are constantly leaving and networks are continually broken and remade. The impermanence of support networks, friendship circles, and relationships, were identified as likely to deter teachers from accepting a position in the remote communities (see Table 4.9 in Section 4.3.9). In most cases, when teachers leave the area, contact and communication between teachers and principals cease, particularly when new principals come into the area and are unaware of previous teachers.

The extension of Bowlby's attachment theory by researchers such as Paetzold (2015) and Richards and Schat (2011) to include organisational attachments highlights how this practice of attracting teachers to the remote communities perpetuates the problem of attraction. As mentioned in Section 2.3.2, Hazan and Shaver (1994) found that on average, attachment took 2–3 years and Richards and Schat (2011) described how attachment theory can be used to explain organisational attachment in terms of how individuals: regulate emotions, seek support, exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour, and utilise internal and external resources to overcome workplace adversities. The continual turnover of teachers affects all aspects of organisational attachment identified by Richards and Schat (2011) due to the state of constant impermanence in which remote schools find themselves. Because of the continued practice of providing permanent positions and the eligibility for a transfer after 3 years, the majority of teachers in the remote schools leave after 3 years, the time it takes to form attachments. Participants in this study considered the impermanence of support networks and friendships (the basis for organisational attachment) very likely to deter teachers from teaching in a remote community, highlighting that the practices to attract teachers by offering permanency, and an eligible transfer after 3 years, perpetuates the difficulty of retaining teachers.

Wendell noted that due to the change in demographics working in the remote communities had become more difficult over the past 20 years but that the practice of providing permanency to young inexperienced teachers had not (see Section 6.5.1 for Wendell's comment). He believed the potential damage of this practice might have been underestimated. For students, having the constant change of teachers could have a permanent effect on students' ability to develop positive student/teacher relationships and subsequently on student outcomes. Although Wendell was concerned for teachers, might the potential damage of this practice on students have been underestimated?

Whilst considering the affect of teacher turnover on students' ability to form attachments, it is important to note that Hattie (2003) identified 30% of the variance in student outcomes can be attributed to teachers (as stated in Section 1.4). As mentioned previously, attachment can take 2–3 years to established (Hazan & Shaver, 1994) and has three features: closeness, comfort and security (Doherty & Feeney, 2004) (discussed in detail in Section 2.3.2). When there is a disruption in the attachment there can be: protest, despair, and emotional detachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Students in the remote communities that were the sites of this study constantly see the 3-year turnover of teachers. Some of these students might form an attachment to one or two of the teachers based on the three features of attachment, but when those teachers leave after 3 years, disrupting the attachment, those students might experience the three stages of disruption: protest, despair and emotional detachment. After experiencing the stages of disruption to an attachment (potentially more than once), some students might remain in the final stage of emotional detachment as a means of self-preservation against repeating the same painful process. This in turn will influence their approach to school and education. With the constant turnover of teachers, and the fear of forming attachments, school may no longer be a place of importance to students. This might explain the low attendance of schools in this study, as data provided in Section

1.4 shows. The fear of forming attachments and the degree of importance students place on school, could be linked to the poor behaviour of some students as discussed in Section 5.4.2.2. The effect of teacher turnover on student attendance and student behaviour is an area that demands further research.

6.6.4 Isolation and Support

As stated in Section 6.6, current practice conveys isolation as essentially unproblematic: something that is short term and is solved financially. Similar to permanency creating impermanence, approaching isolation as unproblematic, makes it more of a problem. First of all, isolation can be defined a number of ways. As described in Section 2.2.4, isolation can be physical (including meteorological and geographical - the four communities focused in this study have been recognised by the DoE and AEU as geographically isolated), psychological (individuals not having the internal power to minimise the negative effects of geographical isolation), interpersonal (separated from family and friends, alternatively referred to as familial isolation), cultural (community expectations and values differing from those previously experienced, as well as access to arts, crafts, drama and museums), personal (those with similar after-hours interests and hobbies - access to depth and variety of human capital), intellectual (professional isolation - not having access to other same grade/subject professionals, distance from provided PD, PST education, and leadership isolation - the absence of an effective leader), and financial isolation (although the yearly incentives offered are supposed to overcome this as one participant, CT10, Section 7.2.1, noted living in the remote community was a financial burden that was not sustainable), and place-based (very few teachers in this study developed a sense of place attachment to the community they lived and worked in and were isolated from the place they were attached to). Practice at the time of this study focused on geographical isolation and did not address the other forms of isolation that teachers might experience. Are the effects of the various types of isolation impermanent,

or is there a premise for concern? By not recognising, acknowledging, or having an awareness of the various types of isolation, long-term consequences might not be addressed or supported.

If teachers experience one or more of the identified forms of isolation, it can impact on their ability to form place attachment and increase the likelihood they will leave after 3 years. Teachers who experience physical (geographical and meteorological) isolation are unlikely to feel a sense of connection, nor are they likely to feel emotionally attached (affect); their thoughts and beliefs will be more negative (cognitive isolation), and they might not become involved in the activities that occur in the location in light of the weather conditions (practice isolation). In this study, one of the reasons Emma left after 3 years was because of the physical isolation. She found it very challenging, whereas Kelli found the weather had an impact but was determined to overcome this and not to allow it to get her down. Kelli remained in the remote region for 8 ½ years. As stated in Section 1.8, the communities in this study experienced winds recorded up to 200km an hour, 250–300 days of rain each year, and an annual total rainfall of 1 to 4 metres – this type of weather is not for everyone. Impacting on the psychological isolation and as mentioned in Section 2.2.4. Squires (2003) noted that individuals experiencing psychological isolation withdraw from engaging with the community (practice, neighbourhood attachment, and sense of community). Interpersonal and personal isolation are similar in terms of how one can lead to the other, with both impacting on the formation of place attachment. Teachers experiencing interpersonal isolation may travel out each weekend to connect to family and friends to reduce the effects of interpersonal isolation, but end up experiencing personal isolation as a result of limited opportunities to engage with the community and share similar interests and hobbies. Both forms of isolation impact on all components of place attachment: affect, cognition, practice, community and neighbourhood attachment. Emma commented that she struggled with not being close to my

family and friends and she would travel out most weekends to catch up with them. She found there was not a lot to do in the communities socially. CT8, noted there were limited opportunities to socialise, play sport or to be involved in social club activities. Seven community members had also noted the lack of recreational activities provided in the region compared to elsewhere in the state (see Section 4.3.1).

The findings of this study highlight that when teachers accept appointments in the remote communities, the culture of the communities is different from what they are familiar with. *From my own experiences the members of the community are very close-knit and are wary and cautious of new teachers, with many not including teachers into their social circles, not because they are unfriendly but because they are familiar with the revolving door of teachers, and are aware the friendships they form with them are generally short term.* Beginning teachers moving away from family and friends for the first time, hoping to make connections in the communities might easily interpret this as unfriendly. One aspect of culture that can be difficult to accept is everyone knowing your business. This is because the communities are quite small (see Table 1.1, Section1.9.2, Chapter 1) so there is nowhere to hide. As PT11, in Section 5.2.2, noted the claustrophobic environment is not for everyone. A bonus of teaching in a small community is that it doesn't take long to get to know all the students, their direct family members, and extended family members, along with the positive and negative connections between families within the community. There is the reciprocation of the community getting to know you not only as a teacher, but personally as well. This is at a far greater personal level than encountered in urban schools and their communities. Kelli described this as living in a fishbowl. This experience might be considered as negative by new teachers moving into the communities who have not been exposed to this in the past or prepared for this aspect of remote community living. Kelli mentioned that she saw many teachers who couldn't survive the culture of the remote communities (see Section 5.2.2, for

Kelli's exact comment). Cultural isolation impacts on an individual's ability to form place attachment. Teachers who are unable to meet or align with community expectations or values, or feel the loss of accessing drama, arts and crafts, could experience cultural isolation. Considering community members play a big part in the cultural aspects of the community, developing a sense of community and belongingness, elements of place attachment, will be impacted.

Intellectual isolation is associated with work related practices. The features of this form of isolation includes access to quality PD and poor school leadership. This form of isolation is more aligned to organisational attachment, the extension of Bowlby's attachment theory, than to place attachment and has been discussed previously (see Section 2.3.2).

As mentioned, the DoE and AEU viewed isolation as a solely geographical issue. Approaching isolation in this narrow way and using finance as a singular solution is problematic. The financial incentive provided is not viewed by participants as a financial incentive to address geographical isolation, but viewed as an attempt to compensate for the cost of living in the communities. It is problematic because teachers in their second year of service in the remote communities, regardless of any form of isolation they might be experiencing, are provided with no support or recognition. In Section 3.3, it was discussed that many decisions about practice in relation to attracting and retaining teachers have been made by people who may have no, limited, or dated experiences of having lived and worked in remote Tasmanian communities, and similarly, those making decisions regarding financial incentives linked to geographical isolation, may have no, or limited knowledge of the various forms of isolation experienced by teachers in remote locations. Crucially, financial incentives do not address forms of isolation that are not related to geography.

Geographical location and weather can be measured. They are not influenced by other variables. Addressing physical location byway of financial incentives is more easily

promoted whereas all other forms of isolation are much harder to address because they each have multiple variables influencing the effect of the isolation between individuals. This does not mean they should not be addressed, but more how to address them. Future research might consider recognising and addressing the various forms of isolation.

6.6.5 Teacher Education

The Teacher Intern Placement Program (TIPP) offered to final year PSTs is similar to teacher residency programs offered in the USA, as described by Guha, Hyler, and Darling-Hammond (2017). The teacher residency programs they described are offered in geographical and subject areas where attracting and retaining teachers is an issue. Teacher residencies are an alternative pathway to gaining qualification where PSTs work with an experienced teacher for a full year. They are required to undertake university coursework during the residency and they obtain a master's degree at its completion. During the residency, PSTs receive a living allowance as well as mentoring support. One of the differences between these programs and the TIPP is that participants in TIPP are required to commit to teaching in the school at the completion of the program rather than in the district, and if participants are granted permanency, there is a minimum 3-year commitment to a Level D school. In contrast to this, participants in teacher residency programs in the US are required to commit to teach in the district (not necessarily in a particular school) for 3 to 5 years after the residency (Guha et al., 2017). Further, TIPP participants are not required to complete a master's degree at the completion of the program. This might be because many PSTs are already undertaking a Master of Teaching, and for those who complete a Bachelor degree, there are no financial or career advantages in Tasmania to undertake a Master of Education. The impact of the teacher residency programs in the USA found 70-80% of participants had remained as teachers in the districts after 5 years. Where retention rates of participants differed, program quality, the participants commitment to teach, as well as the induction and support received during the

first 3 years, were thought to be influential. These same variables (program quality, the participants commitment to teach, as well as the induction and support received during the first 3 years) might explain why the residency program in the USA appears to have been successful in retaining teachers beyond 3 years.

UTAS TEs were included in this study because universities can play an important role in preparing teachers for remote service. However, as Frid et al. (2008), Lock et al. (2009), Mays and Lyons (2006), and White and Kline (2012) noted, teacher education programs are typically city based and support metropolitan and urban appointments. Consistent with this, a TE in this study said that UTAS does not prioritise remote over non-remote schools. A blanket approach to teacher education stems from the belief that teaching is teaching regardless of context. White and Kline (2012) found that university teacher education programs have little or no focus on understanding remote communities and generally have a random or ad hoc approach to providing a PE placement in those areas. These findings were echoed in this study by a TE who stated there are no guaranteed job assignments at the end of the course and because it was not necessary to accept a contract in an isolated area, there was no reason to undertake a placement in one. The data suggest there is little or no focus at UTAS on understanding Tasmania's remote communities or supporting PSTs who might accept a contract or a permanent position in those communities in the future.

Research shows very little has changed in teacher education for preparing teachers to work in remote communities in over 20 years. The Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (2000b) found that "Most teacher training does not adequately equip new recruits with the skills and knowledge needed for teaching in rural and remote Australia" (p. 43) and almost 20 years on, Halsey (2018) noted that a rural/remote school is the first appointment for a number of beginning teachers and recommended changes to teacher education needed to occur to prepare them to work and live in rural/remote communities. The

majority of teachers who participated in this study were beginning teachers when they accepted a teaching position in one of the four remote communities, and as shown in Table 3.2 and Table 3.3, in Section 3.6.2.1, 25 (83%) of these participants had completed their initial teacher education in Tasmania. Most of these, lived and worked in a remote community that was socially and culturally different from that which they had experienced previously. They went to the area for employment purposes and went without knowledge or awareness of what to expect in regard to living and working in the region. Some teachers thrived in the communities, but others did not fare so well.

There was no consensus amongst TEs or PSTs regarding the provision of topics specific to remote education in teacher education courses. Those participants who stated some topics were included, supported the findings of Wallin and Newton (2014) that topics tend to be provided as electives rather than as core units. Beutel et al. (2011) noted that criticism has been directed at teacher education institutions for failing to raise an awareness of teaching in remote communities in their teacher education programs. Beutel et al. (2011) claimed that this contributed to the issue of attraction of teachers to those areas.

The TIPP program catered for a minority of final year students, and those were not necessarily prospective teachers for the remote schools involved in this study. Combining those factors with the findings of this study, portrays an ad hoc approach with no real consensus regarding preparation of all teachers for remote education, in teacher education courses. A recommendation for place-based teacher education in courses is provided in Section 7.6.1.

6.7 Summary of Chapter 6

This chapter used the qualitative data from the interviews, questionnaires and written responses from all participant groups and quantitative data from questionnaires to respond to the third research question:

What strategies and policies have been implemented for attracting and retaining teachers to the Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

Section 6.1, reported the source of current strategies and practices, Section 6.2, focused on the Tasmanian DoE, Section 6.3, mentioned practices of the UTAS, Section 6.4 focused on the practices of the remote community, and Section 6.5 considered practices of the Tasmanian branch of the Australian Education Union. In Sections 6.2 – 6.5, participant views of some of the strategies and practices were provided, as well as a discussion of identified strategies and practices in light of current research. Section 6.6, provided a discussion of the findings in relation to themes found in the literature as well as connections between the findings and place attachment, mobile autonomy and/or Bowlby's attachment theory.

Chapter 7 discusses the results for the fourth research question, 'What strategies do key stakeholders believe may work for attracting and then retaining teachers to the Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?'

Chapter 7

Results and Discussion: What Strategies do Key Stakeholders Believe May Work for Attracting Teachers to and then Retaining Teachers in Department of Education Schools in Remote Tasmanian Communities?

7.1 Introduction

This chapter reports and discusses the results from the interviews, questionnaires and written responses from all participant groups that relate to the fourth research question:

What strategies do key stakeholders believe may work for attracting teachers to and then retaining teachers in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

Suggestions, many interconnected, were provided in responses to all four research questions. Some of these were provided in Sections 4.4, 5.5, and 6.6. This Chapter collates all suggestions. Stakeholder groups identified as having some responsibility for implementing solutions included: DoE, community members, University of Tasmania Faculty of Education staff, Tasmanian Branch of the Australian Education Union, principals and teachers from the remote schools.

Most of the suggestions provided by participants lacked specificity or repeated previously tried strategies that were either insufficient or, as Wendell commented (Section 7.2.6), had not been sustained long enough to be evaluated. Therefore, some of the suggestions are grounded in the data, while others arise from connections to literature with a view to providing innovative approaches. Regardless of the strategies that are enacted, they need to be in place for long enough to assess the extent of their effectiveness and, where appropriate, be promoted to prospective teachers at university, and at the time of their appointment to a remote school.

Themes encapsulating respondents' suggestions were generated from interview data, relevant qualitative data from other sources (e.g. open responses on questionnaires) with the quantitative data from the questionnaires integrated in each theme.

Each of the nine suggestions arising from the findings of this study is presented in a separate section of this chapter. The first is to personalise incentives (Section 7.2). Section 7.3 attends to attracting experienced teachers and principals, and Section 7.4, suggests a review of staffing practices. Section 7.5, presents the suggestion of providing support to teachers and principals in remote communities. Section 7.6 concerns revising Professional

Experience (PE) practices and the Professional Experience in Isolated and Remote Schools (PEIRS) program. Section 7.7, discusses reviewing pre-service teacher (PST) initial education courses, and Section 7.8, suggests supporting community engagement in the education of remote students. Retaining teachers (beyond 3 years) is suggested in Section 7.9, with the final suggestion, outsourcing the management of houses, discussed in Section 7.10. Some of these 'suggestions' could be better considered 'objectives' but are included as suggestions since they were offered as such. At the end of each suggestion, a discussion is presented to highlight the importance of the suggestion by referencing the theoretical frameworks used in this study. A summary of the chapter is provided in Section 7.12.

Participants were not required to consider how the implementation of their suggestion might be achieved. There is overlap and connection among the suggestions consistent with the wicked nature of the problem. Interview participants have been provided with a pseudonym and questionnaire respondents have been provided with a code (as described in Section 3.6.3.1).

7.1.1 Education is a Shared Responsibility

Prior to presenting the individual suggestions, it should be noted that most participants recognised education as a shared responsibility. This section presents examples of this. A community member, two TEs, the non-school based participant, and a 2015 teacher provided unique perspectives on this. For example, Frank, an advisory committee member, suggested that parents become more involved in their child's education, and not consider it purely a teacher's responsibility. Ronan, the TE, suggested that the business sector become more engaged in education in remote Tasmanian communities because it would have a flow-on effect for education, and TE4 believed UTAS should, "… be prepared to collaborate with all educational systems to promote and sustain teacher requirements," Wendell, suggested involving teachers and principals in local groups or on local committees and that the

community (in the broadest sense), make a conscious effort to support education even though the DoE is the major player. He further suggested that, "… we could do with the kind of leadership that brings to the table other community leaders, and we build a stronger whole of community response". The 2015 teacher, CT2, suggested the Futures Committee (explained in Section 3.6.1.5) bring all stakeholders together and develop an Education Strategic Plan for the region that would include attention to the attraction and retention of teachers.

On the basis that education in remote communities is a shared responsibility, the suggestions presented in Sections 7.2 to 7.10, are ordered according to the frequency with which they were mentioned. Each section presents the overall suggestion that arose from similar sub-themes. Section 7.11, provides a discussed of the suggestions in conjunction with the data from this study and, where applicable, comparisons to similar findings in the literature are provided.

7.2 Suggestion # 1: Personalise Incentives

One of the main suggestions was that the DoE should personalise the incentives offered to teachers and principals. At the time of this study there were a number of incentives teachers and principals had access to, and although there was an awareness of some of the incentives, others seemed not to have been widely known. The incentives amounted to a one size fits all approach and focused on attraction, more than on the retention of teachers. The following sections report data in relation to the seven sub-themes from which the suggestion for personalising incentives arose.

7.2.1 Review the Existing Incentives

Six past teachers, five 2015 teachers, two community members, and a non-school based participant provided suggestions about, or reasons for, reviewing existing incentives. One past teacher, Kelli, believed there had been no change to the incentives for at least 20

years. Wendell stated that what is an incentive to one person, is not necessarily an incentive to another. This was noted by Lowe (2006) and Stokes et al. (1999). The one size fits all approach to incentives operating in Tasmania at the time of this study was aimed mainly at beginning teachers, whereas, participants such as Kelli recognised that leadership and quality experienced teachers needed to be considered when devising incentives. Kelli discussed the possibility of individualising the incentives, and of extending incentives beyond 5 years, the time at which all of the currently available incentives stopped. She believed incentives should include the school leader and target quality teachers. Financial and/or career options might include: teachers who choosing to remain in a remote community after 3 years skip one salary band for each year they remain after the initial 3 years and retain the band when they transfer from the region; be provided with career pathways and targeted training for promotable positions (AST, Assistant Principal, or Principal); and/or be reimbursed the cost of utilities. For some teachers, such incentives might mean that remaining in the community longer then the current 3-years presents as a better opportunity.

At the time of this study, teachers who accepted an acting promotable position in one of the remote communities had their substantive position held open by the DoE, for up to 3 years. In response to participants recognising the need for experienced teachers in the remote schools, a similar process might be implemented to enable this to occur for experienced teachers not in promoted positions who would like to spend a period of time in a remote school. Positions already occupied by experienced teachers could be held open for them to return to, should they be willing to go to a remote community for 1 or 2 years. Alternatively, to encourage quality beginning teachers to stay for an extra 2 years to the required 3 years, they could be provided with a position in a school of their choosing when they leave. To enable this to occur, at the commencement of their tenure (in the remote school), teachers might nominate which school they would like to transfer to at the end of their 5th year. If a

position in that school became available during their remote tenure, it could be held open for them.

Further suggestions for retaining teachers included providing: emergent leave based on consecutive years of service, earlier access to long-service-leave or additional long-service leave, a guaranteed transfer to a school of choice after a period of service, enhanced promotion opportunities, a home loan subsidy, cash payments, and leave for personal business including travel. Cash payments were the only incentive offered at the time of this study, so perhaps the amount offered, could be increased. Vinson (2002) noted some of these suggestions.

To enable this to occur, at the commencement of their tenure (in the remote school), teachers might nominate which school they would like to transfer to at the end of their 5th year. If a position in that school became available during their remote tenure, it could be held open for them.

Other suggestions for reviewing the incentives from past teachers were provided in the questionnaires. One past teacher, PT1, mentioned that cash incentives may not necessarily entice people to stay, "… when they are feeling isolated, intimidated, out of the depth …" whereas another, PT11, suggested that what might attract some teachers may not attract others. Wendell, agreed with this idea saying, "… it's very much a case-by-case basis …If you're going to go down that track you've probably got to personalise it".

Table 7.1 shows that on average, questionnaire respondents agreed that providing a guaranteed transfer to an area of choice after 4-5 years would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. A past teacher, PT4, suggested earlier access to, or additional long service leave. Table 7.1 shows that, on average, questionnaire respondents considered that providing emergent leave (e.g., 1 Month Paid Leave After 3-Years' Service, to 6 Months Paid Leave After 10-Years) based on years of consecutive service could be

effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. There was a significant difference between the mean responses of past teachers (M=3.50), and 2015 teachers (M=4.31), [$F(2, 45)=3.96$, $p<0.05$] to the item 'Paid Sabbatical/Study Leave Entitlements after a Designated Period of Service' with 2015 teachers agreeing more strongly, on average, than past teachers that this would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities.

Further suggestions provided by PT4 for retaining teachers in remote communities included: a tax rate reduction and higher superannuation rate. Another past teacher, PT14, suggested allowing teachers to gain a substantive Advanced Skills Teacher (AST) position in remote Tasmanian communities but with the ability to transfer to another school outside of the remote community sooner than 6 years[2].Table 7.1 shows that, on average, respondents considered that providing enhanced opportunities for a promotion would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. Two past teachers and a 2015 teacher, suggested incentives be provided to attract experienced teachers but also to entice them to stay longer than 3 years. Two 2015 teachers, made reference to lack of medical facilities in the remote communities and proposed a day for medical leave during term in addition to sick leave. Questionnaire responses supported this suggestion with respondents agreeing, on average, that providing extra leave for personal business (including travel) would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities (Table 7.1).

[2] Under the industrial agreement in place at the time of this study, all ASTs were to remain in the appointed school, regardless of location, for 6 years. This might explain why AST positions in Tasmanian remote schools, were often filled by inexperienced beginning teachers in an acting capacity.

Table 7.1

Retaining Teachers in Remote Tasmanian Communities

Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Guaranteed Transfer to an Area of Choice After 4-5 Years	Past Teacher	16	4.44	.81
	2015 Teacher	13	4.15	.99
	PST	19	4.48	.77
	Total	48	4.42	.85
Emergent Leave Provisions	Past Teacher	16	4.44	.51
	2015 Teacher	13	4.46	.66
	Pre-Service Teacher	19	4.42	.61
	Total	48	4.44	.58
Paid Sabbatical/Study Leave Entitlements after a Designated Period of Service	Past Teacher	16	3.50	.89
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.86
	PST	19	4.11	.73
	Total	48	3.96	.87
Enhanced Promotion Opportunities	Past Teacher	16	4.13	.62
	2015 Teacher	13	4.98	.76
	PST	19	4.37	.96
	Total	48	4.21	.80
Extra Leave Provisions for Personal Business that Include Travel Days	Past Teacher	16	4.00	.73
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.75
	PST	19	4.05	.78
	Total	48	4.10	.75

Two other, 2015 teachers, advised that more than housing and the opportunity to transfer were needed as incentives. As CT10, stated, "… the financial burden is not sustainable when opportunities become available elsewhere". CT8 pointed to an example of 6 months paid study leave after completing 4 years of continuous service that she believed was available in Queensland. Wendell, mentioned a number of previously provided incentives and reflected, "They've not really been sufficient to deliver the outcome that we've wanted to deliver". He continued,

> We've done those things and they're probably still part of the mix, but obviously on their own, that's part of the problem they're on their own…we need to find something a little bit different, a little bit more continuous, than we have in the past.

Danelle, one of the community participants thought the region definitely needed teachers to stay at least 3 years and thought it would be an added bonus if there were incentives in place to entice the teachers to stay another year or two. Heath, the other community member, thought providing teachers with a financial incentive that covered the cost of travel would encourage teachers to stay longer. Regardless of the agreed incentives, Wendell suggested they be provided at the completion of an agreed timeframe.

7.2.2 Housing

Five past teachers, a 2015 teacher, a TE, and five community members, made suggestions related to the provision of housing. Two past teachers, a TE, and five community members suggested providing quality housing, while another 2015 teacher, CT1, proposed providing more modern houses as the older houses had issues with rising damp. Two 2015 teachers recommended retaining the low cost of rent that was in place and CT10 explained how this helped to mitigate some of the other costs of living in remote communities. Wade said if he had to pay commercial rent he could not afford to live there and Cathy, a past teacher, as well as 2015 teacher, CT1, suggested having the cost of power paid (or part thereof) because of the expense of paying for heating during the cold winter months.

Tables 7.2 and 7.3 relate to the provision of housing for teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. Table 7.2 shows that on average, respondents agreed that providing; free housing, subsidised housing, and quality housing would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities. On average, they agreed free housing would be more effective than subsidised housing.

Table 7.2

Effectiveness for Attracting Teachers to Remote Tasmanian Communities- Housing

Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Free Housing	Past Teacher	16	4.75	.45
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.86
	PST	19	4.68	.67
	Total	48	4.60	.68
Subsidised Housing	Past Teacher	16	4.38	.62
	2015 Teacher	13	4.23	.60
	PST	19	4.26	.65
	Total	48	4.29	.62
Access to Quality Housing	Past Teacher	16	4.38	.50
	2015 Teacher	13	4.15	.80
	PST	19	4.26	.65
	Total	48	4.27	.64

Table 7.3 shows that, on average, respondents agreed that providing subsidised rent that increased with the length of service, would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. Rent in the communities was already heavily subsidised with teachers paying $20 per week at the time of this study. The data suggest respondents believed that rent should continue at the existing rate, or that housing be provided free of charge.

Table 7.3

Retaining Teachers: Rental Subsidies that Increase with the Length of Service

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	3.94	.68
2015 Teacher	13	4.08	.86
PST	19	4.53	.51
Total	48	4.21	.71

7.2.3 Isolation Incentives

Two past teachers, a 2015 teacher, and three community members, provided suggestions related to the existing isolated incentive (see Section 6.2.2). One of the past teachers, PT12, thought teachers would be happy with any form of financial incentive whereas PT4 recommended a higher amount than that which was currently provided. Considering that the isolated incentives offered at the time of this study equated to $20 per week, additional suggestions in lieu of the monetary payments were provided. These included: payment of the Higher Education Contributory Scheme (HECS), provision of additional leave for travel days, continuation of the district allowance, provision of a telephone/internet subsidy, payment or contribution towards the electricity expenses (especially in winter), and payment for the cost of connecting the power. A reduction in HECS was suggested by Herrington and Herrington (2001) and the HREOC (2000b). It was suggested that the community might have the potential to offer incentives to teachers, perhaps through the council, or business and tourism operators.

The 2015 teacher suggested financial equity would be helpful, but did not explain this any further. He may have been referring to the fact that teachers in their second year were not paid an incentive (see Section 6.6.2), a situation that was not equitable in relation to teachers in their first and third years of service. This leads to the suggestion that teachers in their second year of tenure in remote communities should be made eligible for monetary payments. The three community members who proposed providing financial incentives or a tax incentive, may not have been aware an isolated incentive was already available to some of the teachers. Table 7.4 shows that, on average, questionnaire respondents agreed that providing an isolation incentive, a reduction in HECS fees and telephone and internet expenses would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities. The table also shows that on average, respondents concurred that providing a district allowance

would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities. It is not clear whether respondents were aware of the district allowance of $1861 (with dependents) or $931 (single and no dependents), perhaps because it was broken into fortnightly payments and taxed, so that it equated to a single teacher with no dependents receiving an additional $15.70, less tax, each fortnight for the 40-week school year (Section 6.2.5). Such payment may not be noticed by recipients.

Table 7.4

Effectiveness for Attracting Teachers to Remote Tasmanian Communities - Incentives

Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Isolation Incentive	Past Teacher	16	4.25	.86
	2015 Teacher	13	4.38	.87
	PST	19	4.37	.76
	Total	48	4.33	.81
Reduction of HECS	Past Teacher	16	4.00	.97
	2015 Teacher	13	4.46	.78
	PST	19	4.32	.82
	Total	48	4.25	.86
District Allowance	Past Teacher	16	4.19	.83
	2015 Teacher	13	4.15	1.21
	PST	19	4.21	.71
	Total	48	4.19	.89
Telephone/Internet Subsidy	Past Teacher	16	3.94	.85
	2015 Teacher	13	4.38	.65
	PST	19	4.21	.71
	Total	48	4.17	.75

Table 7.5 shows that, on average, respondents concurred that providing a home loan subsidy would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. It is not clear the extent to which teachers in remote communities were aware that they could already be reimbursed for expenses incurred in the purchase or sale of property (elsewhere in the state) such as realtor and solicitor's fees and stamp duty. Advertising expenses could be paid

if it is deemed necessary to purchase a property when moving in to or out of the remote community (see Table 6.1). Table 7.5 also shows that on average, respondents agreed that providing a cash payment would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. However, Sections 6.2.2, and 6.6.2, reported that cash payments are already paid to teachers at the end of their first year, and then again at the end of each of the third to sixth years. As Kelli and Wade commented, incentives are taxed so much they are not considered an incentive. Therefore, if monetary payments are to be used, they should be promoted as compensatory payments rather than as financial incentives. The cash payment received after tax at the end of the fourth, fifth and sixth years appeared insufficient to influence the retention of teachers at the time of this study.

Table 7.5

Effectiveness for Retaining Teachers to Remote Tasmanian Communities - Incentives

Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Home Loan Subsidy	Past Teacher	16	3.94	1.00
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.75
	PST	19	4.42	.69
	Total	48	4.23	.83
Cash Payments After a Designated Period of Service	Past Teacher	16	4.44	.63
	2015 Teacher	13	4.31	.75
	PST	19	4.00	.82
	Total	48	4.23	.75

7.2.4 Contracts and Permanency

Two 2015 teachers, suggested providing longer term contracts rather than the term-by-term contracts offered at the time of this study. Wade explained that it would justify relocating to the remote community. He cited the cost of paying for power connection fees each time power was disconnected at the end of one contract and reconnected at the start of another. The other 2015 teacher, CT6, suggested longer term contracts would provide job

security, stability, and reassurance for those teachers who wanted to stay longer in remote Tasmanian communities. Another past teacher, PT3, wrote, “Offer permanent positions”.

7.2.5 Promote Existing Benefits

In regard to the current situation, promoting the incentives that are available to prospective teachers while at university, as well as in the remote schools, was strongly suggested. As mentioned in Section 6.6, White and Kline (2012) found that TEs were not familiar with various government provided financial incentives aimed at encouraging graduates to work in remote locations leaving it up to graduates to discover these themselves. Considering that graduate teachers in remote locations have relocated to a new environment that is usually culturally different from that with which they are familiar, and that many are away from family and friends for the first time, expecting them to search the unfamiliar staff section of the DoE intranet for possible documents outlining incentives is not a supportive practice.

Three community members suggested providing incentives that were already in existence. That they were unaware of them is understandable. In addition, a 2015 teacher, in her first year of teaching, suggested providing relocation costs even though these were provided at the time. Similarly, another suggestion, from CT8, a teacher of 8 years, requested carer’s leave be made available, suggesting she was not aware of existing leave provisions available to all teachers. Table 7.6 shows that, on average, respondents agreed that providing financial assistance for relocation would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.6

Effectiveness for Attracting: Financial Assistance for Relocating Household Furniture etc.

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	4.31	.79
2015 Teacher	13	4.62	.65
PST	19	4.11	.74
Total	48	4.31	.75

7.2.6 Other Suggestions for Incentives

One community member, Harriet, suggested the local council provide an incentive package for teachers to support the attraction and/or retention of teachers to the remote community. Harriet left this open for the local council to decide what this might include.

Additional quantitative data from participants that might be considered as alternative incentives for attracting teachers to the remote Tasmanian communities, included providing leave provisions that included travel days, and smaller classes. Table 7.7 shows that, on average, respondents considered providing leave provisions that included travel days would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities whereas, on average, respondents were undecided that having smaller classes would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.7

Effectiveness for Attracting Teachers to Remote Tasmanian Communities

Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leave Provisions Including Travel Days	Past Teacher	16	4.13	.72
	2015 Teacher	13	4.46	.52
	PST	19	4.21	.79
	Total	48	4.25	.70
Smaller Classes	Past Teacher	16	3.69	1.20
	2015 Teacher	13	3.92	.86
	Pre-Service Teacher	19	3.47	1.07
	Total	48	3.67	1.06

Wendell suggested obtaining a commitment from teachers to teach in remote Tasmanian communities for a certain time and then rewarding them appropriately when the commitment was met. He suggested being up front with the teacher about the rewards at the completion of the commitment. He believed there was a necessity to accept "… it's going to be incredibly difficult to get people, really experienced people, to just pack up their bags and go and live in an environment, especially the one that is now, not the one that was before it." Wendell referred to incentives that had previously been provided to some principals. He mentioned such rewards as reclassifying the school at a higher level than its actual classification in order to increase the principal salary, as well as providing principals with study leave. Wendell further suggested,

> … whether it's going back to some of the thinking that was behind the cluster model, whether it was the lead principal model. I'm not critical of any of those models. I'm critical of our inability to effectively evaluate them because they never lasted long enough. So, my response to what should be done is have a look at those models, there's plenty of bright people out there to think about any others, but put them in

place with some form of an evidence base, and sustain them over time, and you'll have an opportunity to learn whether or not there is something we can do to change.

It is clear that a diverse range of small incentives were on offer for teachers in remote communities in particular circumstances and at various stages of the careers. Participants had varied opinions about which incentives would be effective. The opportunity for individuals to negotiate a tailored incentive package has potential to both raise awareness of incentives and increase their effectiveness.

7.3 Suggestion # 2: Focus on Attracting Experienced Teachers and Principals

The importance of attracting experienced teachers and principals to the remote community was prominent in the findings. The following sections report data in relation to the two sub-themes from which the suggestion for attracting experienced teachers and principals, including the requirement to negotiate industrial conditions, to enable the suggestions to be implemented, arose.

7.3.1 Focus on Attracting Experienced Teachers

The many beginning teachers in the remote schools have limited (if any) access to experienced teachers. Some remote schools have no teachers with more than 3 years experience, other than the principal. Downes and Roberts (2018) noted that beginning teachers require targeted support within the first 3 months of employment. This type of support is difficult to provide in such environments. Participants recognised the value of attracting experienced teachers to the remote community to provide beginning teachers with mentors. Three past teachers, one 2015 teacher, and Wendell, provided advice for attracting experienced teachers. PT1, suggested that beginning teachers in remote Tasmanian communities initially work with an experienced teacher in a team-teaching situation.

However, for this to occur, experienced teachers need to be available in the region. She further stated, "Mentors who are not senior staff members would be beneficial plus a specific mentoring programme run by DoE so that people wishing to become mentors have to participate in some basic training for supporting beginning teachers". Since this study was undertaken, training for mentors of beginning teachers under the Beginning Teachers Time Release (BeTTR) program (explained in Appendix Q) has become compulsory, however, this will help beginning teachers in the remote communities only if there are sufficient numbers of experienced teachers to mentor them. CT17 recommended attracting experienced teachers to provide mentoring and support based on her personal experience. She stated, "I have two 9/10 classes of 33-35 students. Managing behaviour in such classes as a new teacher is very challenging. I do not feel I am getting adequate mentoring to improve behaviour significantly."

PT4 believed it would be helpful in attracting experienced teachers if there was a, "Higher percentage of experienced staff rather than having majority of beginning teachers in schools'. Similarly, PT14 recommended developing a "… greater pool of experienced teachers". PT11 asked the question, "If only beginning teachers are being attracted to the remote community, where are the experienced teachers for them to learn from?" The 2015 teacher, CT8, explained,

> Given the acute level of social issues in these communities, the lack of experienced teachers and the continual struggle the schools have in attracting enough teachers to meet their staffing quotas, these work places cannot provide consistent mentoring of beginning teachers and in turn, the beginning teachers cannot provide an adequate level of education for the students, particularly in the secondary sector. This situation is further exacerbated by large class sizes (caused by not enough staff) and beginning

> and/or itinerant teachers who are not equipped to deal with the behaviour issues of some of the disengaged students!

Wendell stated,

> … what you're trying to do is get as close as you can to providing teachers whether they're in their first year, second year or third year with access to more experienced practitioners. People with at least 4 years, I think it takes at least that long.

Azano and Stewart (2015) noted that staffing rural schools with high-quality teachers and retaining those teachers was a matter of justice and equity. Suggestions for attracting experienced teachers to the remote communities for the purpose of providing support to beginning teachers were provided by five past teachers, six 2015 teachers, a community member, a TE, and Wendell. Jackie, a past teacher said,

> I think, and I don't know how you do it, but I think more support for beginning teachers. There's the concept of the BeTTR time but that didn't really happen as far as I was concerned. Just because it wasn't feasible. There was no-one to take the class and there was no-one really to learn off (sic).

Kelli added to this, "There was a lack of support. There was a lack of mentors. I know the different things were trialled with the BeTTR program but I didn't see anything that made me feel that the quality of teaching was improving". Section 4.2.2.3, identified experienced teachers had been attracted to work in remote communities in promotable positions. Offering promoted positions that include a mentoring role could have a two-fold effect, it could attract experience teachers, and provide beginning teachers with access to mentoring.

A 2015 teacher, CT2, offered an alternative idea suggesting, "… [remote] schools should be identified as a 'training' ground for our teachers with extra resources to attract high performing teachers to act as mentors to beginning teachers." Meg, the community member provided a suggestion for what was required to attract teachers,

> For me the most important factor to attract new teachers to anywhere is to provide the necessary support, resources, and professional development they require to learn and confidently do their job. I think new teachers are often put in an environment that does not support them. They are new teachers and it is not easy being on their own in their new classroom, with students with varied abilities and needs, and without the care of other staff and peers and professional expertise and support.

TE1 recommended ensuring there was support for teachers who went to a remote community and Wendell suggested the region needed, "an injection of support in an environment like [that]. Support, guidance, mentoring". Table 7.8 shows that, on average, respondents agreed that providing mentoring support to beginning teachers by experienced colleagues would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.8

Effectiveness for Attracting: Mentoring of Beginning Teachers by Experienced Colleagues

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	4.44	.72
2015 Teacher	13	4.54	.66
PST	19	4.26	.73
Total	48	4.40	.71

Although having access to experienced teachers as mentors was considered an effective strategy for attracting teachers, there are possible difficulties of attracting experienced colleagues to the remote communities. For example, since the commencement of this study, promoted mentoring and coaching positions in the remote communities have been advertised with an additional note that relocation costs would not be reimbursed. This limits the positions to be filled by those in a financial position to cover costs.

7.3.2 Appoint Experienced Leaders

Four past teachers, two 2015 teachers, three community members, and a non-school based DoE employee made suggestions regarding the appointment of experienced leaders. PT4 suggested the need for experienced senior staff, believing some are a "… few years out from graduating". PT10 advised that principals need knowledge about the schools and the inherent issues, prior to commencing their principalship. PT2 recommended, "Having strong and capable staff in leadership and senior staff roles is very important" and PT1 described further personal traits required in school leaders in remote Tasmanian communities stating,

> … Senior Staff need to be checked for their ability to guide, lead and support all staff as it's a job that requires empathy, understanding, coaching, guidance, time and willingness to understand the situation from another's perspective. Just because someone can, on paper, run a school well, doesn't mean that that same person has the interpersonal skills to support people.

She further stated that principals appointed to the remote schools should understand that beginning teachers are not experienced teachers, and should be treated in accordance with their career stage. One 2015 teacher, CT5, urged the appointment of quality leaders because "… the leadership is key to the school" and another, CT1, wanted, "Great leaders who are passionate about teaching and learning". Three community members provided suggestions regarding leadership, with Peter suggesting appointing proactive, open leaders. Meg expanded on this saying that young teachers need experienced, caring senior staff. Perry's suggestion stemmed from his concern for retaining quality leaders in remote Tasmanian communities. He advised, "Depending on the location I think they need to change, be a little bit more adaptable to different locations around the state". He referred to an experienced principal who after completing a 3-year contract wished to stay another year, but because another 3-year contract was the only option offered, decided to leave. Perry suggested

principals be able to continue on year-by-year contracts at the completion of the initial contract. Wendell, the non-school based DoE employee reflected on the need for experienced leaders stating,

> … those professional supports, those interactions, the right mix and profile on your staff of access to experienced and other people … good school leadership, experienced principals, experienced senior staff etc. a supportive community, those professional things on balance aren't as strong in remote Tasmanian communities as they need to be to sustain education.

Lock et al. (2012a) suggested personally approaching teachers and principals, and be very honest and upfront about the working and living requirements to ensure informed decisions were made. Wendell suggested the personal approach, and like Lock et al. (2012a), suggested having an honest conversation. Wendell advocated targeting those best equipped to take on the challenge, and then supporting them whilst in the community. He believed teachers in their first 3 years of teaching needed access to experienced practitioners. At the time of this study, not only was there a practice of sending beginning teachers to an area with an increasingly challenging demographic profile (see Section 6.5.1 for Wendell's comment), but most of these beginning teachers had no prior experiences of remote communities (see Section 6.3.5), and no access to experienced teachers or principals once they were there. In in his report, Review into Regional, Rural and Remote (RRR), Halsey (2018) recommended that the Australian Government should, "Ensure RRR contexts, challenges and opportunities are explicitly included in the selection, preparation, appointment and on-going professional support of educational leaders" (p. 5).

Roberts (2004) described the Rural Aspirant Program undertaken in Western Australia. The program focused on attracting experienced principals to schools where this has been historically difficult. Principals were placed in schools for a 2-year trial with their previous

position held open for them during that trial period. If after 2 years they found the experience to be less than satisfactory, they were able to return to their previous position. However, if after 2 years they found they enjoyed the experience they were appointed to the position substantively. The program was considered successful as 30 principal positions were made substantive with only one principal returning to his/her previous position. A similar scheme might be effective for attracting experienced principals, senior staff, and experienced teachers to the remote Tasmanian communities.

7.3.3 Negotiate Industrial Conditions

The industrial agreement operating in Tasmania at the time of this study would prevent or inhibit the implementation of many of the suggestions provided in Sections 7.3.1, and 7.3.2.The difficulty of providing teachers and principals with broader or individualised incentives was recognised by Wendell, a non-school based DoE employee. Wendell stated,

> … tick off the industrial component of that, because that's a problem because people have a view about people coming out [of the remote community], if you shoehorn them into something else that's rewarding. How come that happened? You know we've got to get past, get a shared understanding of that, and why it's done. So, you got to get past the industrial, you got to tackle the personal, the professional those kinds of things.

It will be impossible to implement many of the suggestions for attracting, but more particularly retaining, teachers to the remote communities at the focus of this study without the support and backing of the AEU. Some of the suggestions would require the current industrial agreement to be updated and would require some flexibility. Changes to at least two conditions would be needed. First, at the time of this study, any permanently employed teacher teaching in the remote communities was required to remain for a minimum 3 years and upon completion of the 3 years could only request to transfer to a school within 65

kilometres from their home, not to a specific school (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). Second, teachers in promoted positions (senior staff) were required to remain in a school for 6 years.

7.4 Suggestion #3: Review Staffing Practices

Section 7.3 discussed the recommendation of attracting experienced teachers and principals, whereas this section presents suggestions related to reviewing staffing practices in general. Downes and Roberts (2018) acknowledged that various researchers had promoted changes to staffing of remote schools but none had provided major changes or any "radical new ideas" (p. 32). Schools in remote communities in this study had been subjected to the long-term practice of appointing beginning teachers to the region, resulting in mostly first-time principals with a staff of mostly beginning teachers. Added to this, was the expectation to improve declining student outcomes that had manifested over a number of years, at least in part, as a result of a long-term practice of supplying first time principals and beginning teachers.

The following sections report data in relation to the four sub-themes from which the suggestions for reviewing staffing practices arose.

7.4.1 Beginning Teachers

The non-school based DoE employee, Wendell, described how the increasingly challenging profile of the communities had not been met with any change to the practice of sending beginning teachers to the area (see Section 6.5.1 for Wendell's full comment). Two past teachers provided suggestions regarding the appointment of beginning teachers. PT1, provided an example of a program that she believed was operating in Queensland that, required fortnightly check in for beginning teachers, plus weekend workshops and PL as they embarked on their careers. These formed part of a 2-year package that all beginning teachers

had to participate in. PT4 believed there were too many beginning teachers in the remote schools and there needed to be an "… emphasis on attracting quality graduates rather than just anyone." As mentioned in Section 6.2.7, the DoE and UTAS launched the Teacher Intern Placement Programme (TIPP) in 2015 for the 2016 school year. It was intended to target "highly skilled graduating teachers" (DoE, 2015) and, in particular, teachers of mathematics and science. At the completion of the program graduates were provided a job, but from publically available documents it was unclear whether this was a permanent position or a 1-year contract. Table 7.9 shows that on average, respondents were close to agreeing that providing training scholarships would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities. Because the option included the 5-year obligation, it might be considered as a means to retain them there as well.

Table 7.9

Effectiveness for Attracting: Training Scholarships with an Obligation to Work in a Remote School for 5 Years

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	3.69	1.25
2015 Teacher	13	3.77	1.17
PST	19	4.16	1.17
Total	48	3.90	1.19

In addition, past teachers, and teachers in 2015 on average, considered their initial teacher education to have been ineffective in preparing them to teach in remote communities (Section 6.3.1.1) because there was no requirement to undertake a PE in a remote location during teacher education.

Wendell raised a number of questions that should be asked about the practice of appointing beginning teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. He suggested the premise

of the remote community being, "… a place where first, second and third year outs will go" should be questioned. He proposed,

> We should be asking ourselves, "Why is that?" "Why aren't they starting here where we're doing this interview, or in another school two kilometres up the road with 500 kids and 50 staff, and sitting in teaching teams with 6 other teachers and learning how to teach, who all teach early childhood?" Why aren't we doing that?

If the practice of sending beginning teachers to the remote communities is going to continue, it is important to provide them with access to experienced teachers and principals in those schools, as well as additional support especially if teacher education courses continue to provide a metrocentric approach to teacher education that does not ensure that all graduate teachers posted to remote communities are well prepared for the possibility of being posted to a remote community.

Additional quantitative data pertaining to beginning teachers concerned teaching loads of beginning teachers. Although beginning teachers throughout Tasmania were already provided with additional release time through the BeTTR program, the findings showed that in some schools this was not provided due to lack of relief teachers and the lack of an experienced teacher to learn from. Table 7.10 shows that, on average, respondents tended to agree that reducing the teaching load of beginning teachers beyond that which was provided by the BeTTR program would be effective for attracting beginning teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.10

Effectiveness for Attracting: Reduction of Beginning Teacher Teaching Load (additional to the current BeTTR time)

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	3.69	1.20
2015 Teacher	13	4.00	1.23
Pre-Service Teacher	19	4.05	.85
Total	48	3.92	1.07

7.4.2 Industrial Agreement 2013

As noted in Section 7.4.1, Wendell asked why beginning teachers in Tasmania weren't starting their careers in a school that had enough staff to provide teaching teams from whom beginning teachers could learn how to teach. One possible answer concerns school classifications. These, along with eligible service for the remote schools, provided in the industrial agreement were discussed in Section 6.5.1. What has not been discussed is the eligible service for schools categorised as Level A, B or C where Level A schools are considered most preferred and Level C schools least preferred.

According to the industrial agreement in place at the time of this study, teachers in Level B or C schools were not able to be transferred until after 4 years of service, and teachers in Level A schools were not able to be transferred until after 6 years of service (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). Thus, the more preferred the school, the less likely a vacancy would be available for a graduate teacher. Very few new permanent positions were offered in Level A and B schools because they tended to have enough permanent teachers already occupying available positions. Positions in these schools that were available to beginning teachers tended to be short term contracts to fill temporary vacancies left by permanent teachers taking some form of leave (e.g., long-service-leave,

maternity leave, extended sick leave). Beginning teachers in these schools were used essentially for long-term relief.

At the time of this study, under the industrial agreement, if a fixed-term teacher worked for eight consecutive school terms in any given school or location, they were eligible to be converted from a fixed-term to a permanent employee, and placed on what was called a Flexible Teaching Pool (FTP) (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). FTP status provided teachers with guaranteed employment to cover extended leave or short-term vacancies, within 70 km of their place of residence, for up to 4 years, before conversion to substantive permanent employee (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013). In order to remain closer to home, some beginning teachers were willing to take a chance on having continuous employment for eight terms to gain FTP status. For some teachers, such as Jacki, this was not an option for her based on her long-term life and work plans.

The industrial agreement included a clause for required transfers. This was where a teacher who had completed the eligible years of service in a Level A, B or C school, might be required to transfer to create a vacancy for eligible transfers from remote areas. However, there were clauses in the industrial agreement that enabled them to postpone or appeal the required transfer. The result of this, was that in a number of Level A, B and C schools there were teachers who had remained in the same school for over 20 years (I am currently working in such a school).

7.4.3 Identify Future Teachers/Principals

Participants in this study suggested developing a workforce plan, and to identify future teachers and principals to work in remote Tasmanian communities. CT2 suggested all stakeholders collaborate to develop an education strategy for the region. The MCEETYA (2011) recognised that a key challenge of teacher recruitment was “conducting sound work force planning to ensure that predicted staffing needs are met” (p. 8) and Roberts (2004) and

Downes and Roberts (2018) identified the need to develop a model for remote staffing. At the time of this study, in Tasmania, there was a blanket approach of advertising positions in the school term prior to requiring the position to be filled even when need of the position was known well before. Early advertising of positions in remote schools is especially important as it would allow principals to advise staff (as well as answering the, "What's in it for me?" question) or experienced teachers and/or principals could be personally approached with a view to negotiating a contract to fill the position.

In regard to experienced teachers, Wendell suggested strategically bringing teachers and leaders to the remote community, saying,

> …it needs the most pragmatic honest marketing campaign or promotion campaign that someone with the brains can come up with. Not a glossy one because we all know the place is small enough. People talk, and people understand the realities and the realities are extremely challenging … also be very savvy about the way you might offer people an opportunity to teach there ... have an honest conversation with people so you give yourself the best chance to get people who are as equipped as they can be, to take on that challenge, and then support them extremely well.

In relation to identifying beginning teachers to teach in remote Tasmanian communities, the community member Heath, suggested representatives from the local council go to the university to encourage PSTs to teach in remote Tasmanian communities and Wendell urged honest communication with PSTs. He recommended asking questions about their teaching aspirations and whether they had considered the region, while at the same time, reassuring them they would not be penalised if it was not something they would consider. He recommended preparing PSTs in terms of what to expect in an isolated environment. As with his earlier suggestions, Wendell reiterated the importance of finding a good strategy and following it through.

7.4.4 Provide Long-Term Contracts

Further suggestions for reviewing staffing practices that arose from the study include offering long-term contracts in preference to short-term (single school term) contracts. Reasons provided for this suggestion were that longer contracts remove the uncertainty of and provide job security, stability, reassurance, thereby alleviating angst amongst teachers. Downes and Roberts (2018) described how short-term appointments contribute to teacher transience, insecurity and negatively impacted teachers' ability to connect to the community - which could be a source of learning and support.

7.4.5 Grow your own Teachers

A PST, a remote community member, and a TE, suggested having some students from the region undertake teacher education. Heath, the community member, suggested recognising students from the region in Year 11 and 12 who wanted to enter teaching as a profession, and offering them a scholarship as a means of getting, "... actual locals from this area into teaching training so that these kids can come back to their home area." He suggested the scholarship would include assistance with accommodation whilst undertaking the degree and included guaranteed employment in their home area at the end of the degree. He thought the incentive was the financial support for attending university, because that was expensive for families. Heath further supported his suggestion stating, "… they're coming back home to work not going away to work ... they've got that family support and a network already in place here so it makes things a lot easier." Adding to this, TE5 proposed, "… attracting high school aged students in remote schools to consider teaching as a career might also be useful". Based on the premise that education is a shared responsibility, various stakeholders, including businesses of community groups and organisations could contribute towards such scholarships.

7.5 Suggestion #4: Provide Support to Teachers and Principals

The suggestions provided by participants and presented in this section are a reflection of the fact that the schools in the remote communities were mostly staffed by beginning teachers. When beginning teachers are sent to remote communities, it is important to provide support, and, because there are teachers leaving every year, support needs to be ongoing for each new group of beginning teachers. The following sections report data in relation to the three sub-themes from which the suggestion for providing support to teachers and principals arose.

7.5.1 Professional Development

Five past teachers, three 2015 teachers, and Wendell, provided suggestions for professional development (PD) as a means of supporting teachers in the remote schools. PT14 suggested the, "provision of a serious post-uni training program, delivered by experienced teachers." He further explained that schools need to,

> create and provide a culture of learning and growth, somewhere people really enjoy being, and being with their colleagues. Great professional learning can and will come from the work at the school - not necessarily with other people in other locations.

Participants in this study rated teacher education as ineffective for preparing them to teach in remote communities (see Section 6.3.1.1). Downes and Roberts (2018) supported providing PD to beginning teachers to assist them with transitioning from being a PST to an in-service teacher.

Because of the lack of access to experienced teachers and the impermanence of support networks in remote schools, PT2 suggested providing opportunities for teachers to visit schools outside of the remote communities to enable networking and sharing of ideas.

This would go some way to providing the support. Downes and Roberts (2018) noted that support networks were influential in the success of beginning teachers in remote schools.

Two of the three 2015 teachers, recommended financial and time support for travelling to attend PD provided outside of the remote communities. The other 2015 teacher, CT13, proposed PD be provided that is specific to the remote community. Wendell urged attention to the aims of PD. He suggested that PL providers should,

> …really drill beneath the surface to understand the extent to which there's a genuine connection for people who lead schools in remote Tasmanian communities, and people who teach in classrooms there, about how effective that is. The best professional learning models on balance, have a high proportion of the time where practising teachers are: well informed, and are working together, and working with students' work, and referencing the stuff to the work they're actually doing at the moment etc., with a bit of expert input.

Table 7.11 shows that, on average, questionnaire respondents agreed that providing access to professional learning, and additional school staff to cover relief for professional learning, would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities. The table also shows that on average, respondents were close to agreeing that providing more accessible professional learning would be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.11

Effectiveness for Attracting and Retaining: Professional Support

Factor	Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Access to Professional learning	Past Teacher	16	4.13	.89
	2015 Teacher	13	4.38	.65
	PST	19	4.16	.69
	Total	48	4.21	.74
Additional School Staffing to Cover Relief for Professional learning	Past Teacher	16	4.00	.82
	2015 Teacher	13	4.38	.77
	PST	19	4.00	.75
	Total	48	4.10	.78
More Accessible Professional learning	Past Teacher	16	4.00	.52
	2015 Teacher	13	3.92	.94
	PST	19	3.68	.82
	Total	48	3.85	.77

7.5.2 Increase Beginning Teacher Time Release

At the time of this study, the Beginning Teacher Time Release (BeTTR, explained in Appendix Q) program was provided to beginning teachers in their first year of teaching. If Wendell was correct (see Section 6.5.1) in saying it takes up to 4 years for most people to consider they can teach, and that the suggested inclusions in initial teacher education, mentioned in Section 7.2.2, are important, it would be beneficial for BeTTR time to be extended to include in remote schools, up to and including the 5th year. This would mean providing access to experienced teachers to mentor the beginning teachers under the BeTTR program. As mentioned in Section 7.3.1, Jacki was aware of BeTTR time, but she was not provided with it because there was no relief to take her class and there were no experienced teachers to learn from.

The lack of access to relief is another factor that needs to be considered in the staffing of schools. Allocating an additional teacher to the remote schools to provide internal relief

should be considered to cover sick leave as well as relief requirements for teachers to attend PD. This additional teacher would need to be experienced because it should not be expected that a beginning teacher would have access to internal and external resources to teach multi-grade classes, as well as high school subjects (in the K-12 schools) at short notice.

7.5.3 Support Mental Health

Two past teachers and Wendell, a non-school based DoE employee, recommended providing greater support for the mental health of teachers in remote Tasmanian communities. PT1 mentioned having witnessed, "… unsupported staff members with a lot of potential, who were put under undue pressure, who ended up leaving because there was no other option for their mental health and wellbeing." She further advised that,

> At some point, people in district offices need to understand that it's not about the isolation - there are many more teachers in Australia that are far more remote than the remote Tasmanian communities. It's about the way in which undue pressure is exerted upon the few willing staff members that are prepared to go to the [remote region]. These staff need to be supported AT ALL COSTS (sic) if there is to be a reverse trend of people leaving [remote schools] in epic numbers.

Wendell advised that a teacher needed to be,

> … a relatively balanced individual and that balance, if you're out of balance it doesn't take long for it to be reflected in how you manage your classroom. So, you need both the personal and professional domains to at least be ok.

Downes and Roberts (2018) suggested providing professional development that focused on personal skills including: developing awareness of mental health issues, improving personal resilience, developing self-efficacy, and assisting teachers to develop support networks. As mentioned in Section 4.4, for some beginning teachers teaching in a remote community might

be the first time they have lived away from home and these skills might not have been previously required or developed.

There were concerns expressed for teachers who were genuinely miserable living and working in the remote communities but stayed for 3 years to keep their permanency. Concerns were twofold: students were being taught by unhappy teachers, and the situation led to negative word of mouth about the community.

7.5.4 Separating Living and Working

The difficulty of separating living and working in the remote communities was discussed by Kelli, Wade and Wendell. Kelli had referred to living in the remote communities to a "...fishbowl..." where everyone knew your business and there was no privacy. She mentioned how some families made teachers' lives miserable (see Section 5.4.1.2). Wade acknowledged he couldn't separate where he worked from where he lived, and Wendell did not believe the two could be separated.

Halsey (2006) recognised three domains of what he described as a spatial map: the personal, the professional, and the public domains. The personal domain concerns all aspects about the teacher as a person outside of the profession. The professional domain includes all aspects about the teacher as a professional, such as education and training. The public domain is any aspect of community involvement the teacher has whilst in the remote community, such as involvement in service clubs and sporting clubs. Because remote communities are small and the loss of anonymity for teachers is synonymous with small communities, it is essential teachers are able to identify the components of each of the domains in order to be effective as professionals amidst perceptions formed about their personal and public domains.

7.6 Suggestion #5: Revise Professional Experience Practices

At the time of this study, PSTs were not required to undertake a PE in a remote location but, in light of the difficulties experienced by beginning teachers in remote communities, several participants suggested that PSTs should undertake at least one PE in a remote school. Participants recommended a review of the PEIRS program. The following sections report data in relation to the two sub-themes from which the suggestion for revising PE practices arose.

7.6.1 Professional Experience (PE)

McConaghy (2006) noted that it is impossible to prescribe remote teaching in a teacher education curriculum because it belongs in the experience of place. That is, the experience of remote teaching is provided in the experience of location, rather than in teaching pedagogies. McConaghy (2006) questioned the possibility of theorising time and place of teaching. Therefore, in order to prepare PSTs for the possibility of teaching in remote locations and to experience place, there should be two inclusions in teacher education courses; a compulsory unit on place-based education and pedagogy (see Section 2.3.1), and field experience in a remote community (Azano & Stewart, 2015). Research in medical training has found medical students who undertake rural clinical placements during undergraduate and postgraduate training are more likely to become rural GPs than those who have not had the exposure (Clark et al., 2013; Jones, Bushnell, & Humphreys, 2014; Wilkinson, Laven, Pratt, & Beilby, 2003). Jones et al. (2014) cited curriculum focus during medical training was equally an influential factor.

Eckert and Petrone (2013) claimed, that a lack of meaningful experience in remote contexts might perpetuate a "deficit model" of remote communities and education in our pre-service and graduate teachers, and Sharplin (2002) recognised that PSTs develop views about

remote teaching from secondary sources which, in turn, influence decisions about whether to accept an appointment in such a place.

At the time of this study, there was a single approach to PE regardless of school and community, and which, therefore, failed to recognise the uniqueness of living in a remote community potentially away from everything familiar. PSTs need to be challenged, and learn to teach in difficult places such as remote areas (Roberts, 2004; Sharplin, 2002). Vaughan (2005) noted that middle class teachers want to teach students like themselves, and enter teacher education unaware of "societal injustices and educational inequalities" (p. 26). He suggested moving PSTs out of their comfort zones so that they can experience diversity first-hand. They should be required to undertake at least one PE in a remote, or challenging urban low socio-economic school. Exposure to the possibilities of cultural difference (see Section 6.6), during pre-service education would help to prepare teachers for community living in remote communities as well as other educationally disadvantaged areas.

Some of the suggestions for PE were in regard to the PEIRS program and were presented in Section 6.3.4. In Section 6.3.2, Adam stated there was a policy of not sending students beyond 65km of their residence, but PSTs were encouraged to look beyond that. He further mentioned the final PE was close to the end of the year, and by this time schools would know if they have vacancies to fill the following year. TE2, pointed out the alignment between this UTAS policy and DoE placement policies; "… because there is no necessity to accept a contract in an isolated area, there is no reason to undertake a placement in one". Barley (2009) noted the importance of preparing teachers for the conditions of rural and remote schools, and the communities they serve and Halsey (2018) made a similar recommendation. He stated that the Australian Government should "Ensure RRR [Regional, Rural and Remote] contexts, challenges and opportunities are explicitly included in the

selection and pre-service education of teachers, initial appointment processes and their on-going professional support" (p. 5).

Ronan mentioned there was a Professional Experience Task Group at UTAS that had responsibility for developing strategies around PE placements. It was suggested that, prior to applying for PE, the Faculty of Education at UTAS, or perhaps the Professional Experience Task Group, arrange to have teachers in remote Tasmanian communities speak to PSTs about living and working in those communities. A past teacher and three TEs provided suggestions concerning undertaking PE in remote Tasmanian communities. PT12, the past teacher, suggested undertaking a PE in remote Tasmanian communities because it would provide a "… taster for teaching in remote schools."

TE4 advised that any PST undertaking a PE in remote Tasmanian community would need to be well supported and Adam advised that schools should support PSTs and convey that they want them to undertake PE there. He believed the university and the schools in the remote communities had a shared role in relation to PSTs undertaking a PE in the remote communities. TE4 suggested supporting PSTs undertaking PE in remote locations through regular video conferencing with a PE mentor who understands the challenges of a remote school. TE4 suggested that PSTs who undertake a PE in a remote Tasmanian community be connected with past PSTs who have undertaken PE in a similar community. She suggested that PSTs be "buddied up" with a non-teaching staff member or a community member who lives in the area, "… so that they do not feel isolated during the placement both professionally and socially."

TE5 suggested recognising students who are committed to teaching in rural and remote schools and providing them with specific training and incentives. Ronan believed PSTs should be encouraged to experience a variety of placements, including in remote schools. He stated, there are benefits for PSTs of being immersed in a place for a series of

weeks without the interruptions of regular home life. Although he did not state what these benefits were, they might include being immersed in the culture of a remote community. At the time of this study, the longest PE undertaken during teacher education at UTAS was 6 weeks (30 days) in the final year (UTAS, 2018a; 2018b, 2018c), and the PEIRS program was available only for that PE. Six weeks in a remote community away from regular routines would provide immersion into the culture and an opportunity for PSTs to get out of their comfort zones. It might help to alleviate stereotypes that PSTs can have about the remote communities (see Section 4.3.4). Immersion in a community might develop awareness in the PST, that they might need to change, that they need to develop understanding of the students, their families, and the wider community members. The experience would allow PSTs to make a better-informed decision about whether to accept a remote placement and reduce the likelihood of students being exposed to unhappy teachers as described in Section 6.5.1.

Table 7.12 shows that, on average, questionnaire respondents agreed that undertaking PE in a remote school would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.12

Effectiveness for Attracting: Pre-Service Professional Experience in a Remote School

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	4.13	.72
2015 Teacher	13	4.08	.64
Pre-Service Teacher	19	4.26	.56
Total	48	4.17	.63

7.6.2 Professional Experience in Isolated and Remote Schools (PEIRS) Program

As explained in Section 2.7, the PEIRS program was introduced in 2000 (Tasmanian Department of Education, 2000), but as reported in Section 6.3.4, 18 of the 19 (95%) final

year PST questionnaire respondents, were unaware of the program, and only two of the seven TE questionnaire respondents, said they had not heard of the program. Program details were on the UTAS website but they were difficult to locate and students were not explicitly informed of the program until they applied for their final PE placement. Adam stated that PSTs were informed of the program "… in the blurb that goes out …" to students in their final year.

In regard to the availability of the program, suggestions varied (at the time of this study it was available to final year PSTs only). Table 6.1, in Section 6.3.4.1, showed TEs opinions about the year in the B.Ed. program in which the PEIRS program should be made available to PSTs. Responses included that providing access to the PEIRS program for all PEs would enable PSTs the opportunity to undertake at least one remote PE, and for them to decide which placement suited their context, prior experiences, and post-graduation goals. Others believed it should be available for the 3rd and 4th year PEs only because these PEs were longer than earlier ones. Thirteen of the 19 PSTs suggested PSTs be explicitly made aware of the program during the first year of teacher education and four respondents, undertaking the 4-year Bachelor of Education (Primary) course, suggested being informed in the second year. The one PST who was aware of the PEIRS program, thought it would be best if it was offered in PE2.

7.7 Suggestion #6: Review PST Education Courses

According to participants in this study, teacher education was ineffective for preparing teachers to teach in remote communities, particularly in schools predominantly staffed by beginning teachers. It was suggested that initial teacher education courses include a compulsory unit that focussed on remote teaching and living. The following sections report

data in relation to the four sub-themes from which the suggestion for revising PST education courses arose.

7.7.1 Teacher Education

Based on 24 questionnaire responses, past teachers and 2015 teachers, on average, rated preparation for teaching in a remote school as ineffective. In Section 6.3.5, it was mentioned that during teacher education, there was no requirement (or opportunity) to undertake a core unit in rural or remote teaching, nor a requirement to undertake a rural or remote PE placement. TE1 (Section 6.3.1) stated that an elective was available for those wishing to pursue a career in a remote location but, as findings of this study show, many teachers do not choose a career in a remote location, but rather accept an appointment in a remote location in order to be employed. In the same section, it was reported that TE4, did not believe the Faculty of Education had a role to play in promoting working in any particular type of school. TE2, agreed stating, “I'm not sure that they are less important or more important to the University than other government schools of similar size in Tasmania.”

These views were reflected in the teacher education courses at the time of this study. As described in Section 6.3, the courses were general and none included a focus on living or working in remote communities (UTAS, 2018a, 2018b, 2018c). TE5, however, thought differently. He believed there should be training specific to remote schools, and incentives for PSTs to go to those locations.

7.7.2 General Inclusions

Questionnaire participants were asked to comment on the effectiveness of their initial teacher education. Several suggestions were provided for inclusion in teacher education courses or for a greater focus on some of the existing course content. The suggestion provided most frequently was for a greater focus on behaviour management, including

supporting students who had experienced trauma. Other suggestions concerned: planning, differentiated teaching, writing Individual Education Plans, assessment and reporting, how to organise a classroom, completing risk management plans for excursions, and policies and procedures for schools, none which were specific to schools in remote locations.

A number of these elements might be best provided by the schools where the focus could be on the needs of the particular school. The responses reflect a gap between teacher education and the needs of beginning teachers in Tasmanian Government schools. This supports the importance of having experienced teachers (discussed in Section 7.3) in remote schools in order to provide beginning teachers with support for undertaking these DoE requirements.

7.7.3 Preparation for Living and Working in Remote Communities

In Section 6.3.1 the preparation needed by PSTs to live and work in remote communities was discussed. Two TEs expressed a belief that preparation for teaching in remote communities was no different from teaching anywhere else and consistent with this, the approach taken to placements by UTAS in terms of preparation and support for working in schools was generic. TE1 noted that supervision of PE placements was provided according to the Faculty guidelines and there was no specific support provided for PSTs in the remote communities. Boylan (2004), for example, suggested universities provide courses that prepare PSTs for living and working in remote communities. At the time of this study, the university website provided course outlines for three teacher education programs, none of which focussed on working and living in remote communities, or contained compulsory units relevant to teaching in these contexts. The HREOC (2000b) provided a recommendation for teacher education programs;

> All teacher training institutions should require undergraduates to study a module on teaching in rural and remote communities, offer all students an option to undertake a

> fully-funded practical placement (teaching experience) in a rural or remote school and assist rural and remote communities in the direct recruitment of new graduates for their schools. (p. 44)

In terms of support provided in units or electives, there were conflicting views from TEs and PSTs as to what was and what was not included, as Tables 6.2 and 6.3 in Section 6.3.1.1 show. Support provided following a remote school placement was ad-hoc, with TE2 stating that opportunities for discussions were provided in various units but there was nothing provided specifically related to remote placements.

Views about teacher preparation from past teachers were similarly unfavourable. Three past teachers could not recall any preparation for remote teaching during their teacher education and PT13 thought that most of what was provided in her teacher education course was not relevant to teaching. PT5 did not feel teacher education prepared teachers for living and working in remote communities, or for working with colleagues who were also beginning teachers (see Section 6.3.1.1 for her full comment). A past teacher, PT12, recalled having a guest speaker attend the university at the end of her teacher education to discuss aspects of teaching in remote schools.

7.7.4 Induction Program

One 2015 teacher, CT13, had undertaken her teacher education at the Queensland University of Technology (QUT) and provided a suggestion for the Faculty of Education at UTAS based on a James Cook University (JCU) program that she had been provided with through QUT. The proposal was to run an induction to the profession week during the final year of teacher education. This week at QUT included contributions from, "… the union, international teaching agencies, QUT, professional bodies and employers from across the state (public and private)". During the week, PSTs were shown how to apply for a rural school position as well as informed of incentives to do so (e.g. financial support, mentoring

programs, and PD). It was only after the induction week that CT13 had considered teaching in a remote location. Table 7.13 shows that on average, respondents were close to agreeing, that providing an induction program about living and working in remote Tasmanian communities would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.13

Effectiveness for Attracting: Special Induction Programs about Living and Working in Remote Communities

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	3.81	.91
2015 Teacher	13	4.15	.90
Pre-Service Teacher	19	3.74	.73
Total	48	3.88	.84

7.8 Suggestion #7: Support Community Engagement

This suggestion arose from of a number of comments about remote communities supporting and valuing education but also about the Department of Education (DoE) supporting the remote communities. The following sections report data in relation to the five sub-themes from which the suggestion for supporting community engagement arose.

7.8.1 Welcome New People

Welcoming new people was the most discussed suggestion for the remote communities. Eight community members recognised the importance of the need for community networks for teachers in remote Tasmanian communities and provided suggestions for the provision of these. For example, Monica recognised that teachers needed things to do after school hours and illustrated this with the idea of hosting a welcome reception. She suggested using the reception to co-ordinate connections between teachers and community groups or individuals. Two other community members and Wendell, a non-

school based DoE employee, provided suggestions regarding a welcome reception. Danelle suggested the welcome reception be held in the first weeks of the first school term. Perry suggested the welcome reception should include all people new to the community, not just the professionals (teachers, police and nurses) who had been invited to similar events in the past. Wendell described how another local council had hosted a reception in the council chambers for their new teachers. In his opinion, holding a reception sent a message that the community valued education.

Two other community members supported the proposal of connecting teachers to interest groups in the community. Wanita suggested representatives from the different sporting groups provide their contact details for teachers, while Danelle proposed that community organisations such as Rotary (a service club), host a welcome event for new teachers and encourage them to become members. Harriet had similar ideas of inviting teachers to community functions. On a different note, Peter and Nicolas proposed that teachers be provided with a community mentor. Peter suggested the mentor would either direct the teacher to different sport or community groups, or accompany them. He considered this would help to retain teachers because they would "… find it difficult to then leave because they develop really strong ties with the community". Another community member, Heath, suggested assisting teachers to become involved in the Neighbourhood Centres (details in Appendix O). However, the uncertainty of continued employment in remote Tasmanian communities for some teachers (see Section 7.2.4) may impact on the willingness of teachers to commit to integrating with the community.

Five community members, two past teachers and one 2015 teacher believed that remote communities need to better embrace and accept new people into their community. Monica questioned the negative community view of teachers being "…seagulls…" (they fly in and fly out) and not wanting "…new comers…". In response to the negative view the

community has of teachers she questioned the feasibility of getting the community "… to a point where we genuinely embrace new people in, and how do we make them part of the social fabric, and make them feel included rather than that exclusion?" Raymond et al. (2010) and Pretty et al. (2003) mentioned that the community influenced the extent to which a person feels supported and belonging. Warren commented that some teachers may not want, or expect to be, included in the community, and are comfortable to be left to their own devices after hours. He suggested the support they receive be provided by the local businesses they utilise, such as the supermarket and the hardware store. He suggested community members needed to accept that not all teachers are going to be fully engaged in the community, and that there will be teachers who leave at every opportunity. In his words, "the community need to accept that if they're going to get high standard people sometimes they'll have to accept drive in drive out." He continued,

> … there needs to be an acceptance from the community that it's ok, we're not going to call you a seagull, or whatever derogatory term that they want to use to describe someone as though they're not contributing as much as they ought, simply because they're doing what they want to do in their own time, and not spending it all down in [remote Tasmanian communities] … to get quality you need to, you've got to have an open mind."

Perry commented that acceptance of new people in the community needed to start with the leaders in the community.

7.8.2 Positively Promote the Region

Six of the seven community members proposed promoting the local environment and activities that it facilitated, such as four-wheel driving, river cruising, train journeying, and visiting national parks and reserves, to potential teachers. One community member, Nicolas, proposed developing the region as an environmental education centre. This is discussed

further in Section 8.4. In relation to promoting the local environment and activities, a past teacher, PT7, recommended the community better promote local events between and within each of the communities. Table 7.14 shows that, on average, questionnaire respondents were undecided as to whether having access to outdoor activities could be effective for retaining teachers in remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.14

Retaining Teachers: Access to Outdoor Activities (e.g. Bush Walking)

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	3.56	.81
2015 Teacher	13	3.92	.86
Pre-Service Teacher	19	3.42	.90
Total	48	3.60	.87

7.8.3 Promote the Region as Valuing Education

Wendell believed local governments should make education a priority in remote Tasmanian communities and should work with local businesses, employees, and anyone in the community with influence, to communicate that education is important, teachers are important, and schools are important. He was aware that such a cultural change would not mean that teachers would remain indefinitely, but the knowledge that they, as teachers, and education in general was valued by the community, would assist them while they were there. Bartholomaeus (2006) explained how community members served as resources and partners in teaching and learning. Reciprocation on the part of principals and teachers is important. They need respectfully to communicate with community leaders about what is happening at the school.

However, for a number of decades, Tasmanian remote communities have had beginning teachers as the main source of their staffing. At times, the schools have been

understaffed, and the eligible transfer after 3-years has resulted in a revolving door of teachers. As Reid et al. (2012) and Baills et al. (2002) found, community members have perceived an unintended negative message about the importance of education over the decades. Support might be required to assist the local council with promoting the value of education including by the DoE demonstrating that it values education, and specifically for these communities.

7.8.4 Provide a New Resident Kit

This theme included suggestions provided by participants who used the terms '…new residents kit…" or "…information pack…" Four community members, a past teacher, and a 2015 teacher provided proposals regarding a New Residents' Kit. Wanita, a community member, stated there was such a kit but that it was only provided to residents who purchased a house. She suggested that the kits be made available to teachers as it included information such as contact details of doctors, visiting specialists, and community groups, along with the details of leisure activities that are available in remote Tasmanian communities. Perry suggested that such a kit be updated every 12 months. The kits could be made available as a downloadable document on the local council's website.

Having access to a new resident kit would have provided Jackie, a past teacher, with information as to how to get the power connected and access to gas cylinders (see Section 5.4.1.2, for her comment). Danelle and Cindy, two community members, as well as Wade, a 2015 teacher, recommended providing new residents with a directory that included services and clubs. Lock et al. (2009) stated that new teachers should be provided with as much information about the community as possible. Other communities provide such kits.

For example, new residents in Dubbo have been welcomed at a reception where they received a gift and a new resident kit. The kit comprised of information about the city, and services provided by the council. The mayor of Dubbo acknowledged that moving to a new

place could be daunting and so the council wanted to provide a function that allowed new residents to meet each other. He said it was one way of building networks ("Dubbo welcomes new residents with social night", 2012).

Similarly, the Southern Downs Regional Council provided a new resident kit to home buyers, and renters who were renting for at least 6 months. New residents had the opportunity to meet the mayor at an afternoon tea or picnic ("Council, chambers unite to welcome new residents", 2015). Table 7.15 shows that on average, questionnaire respondents were undecided as the extent to which providing assistance to locate community services would be effective for attracting teachers to remote Tasmanian communities.

Table 7.15

Effectiveness for Attracting: Assistance with Finding Community Services (e.g. Child Care and Medical Centres)

Participant Type	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
Past Teacher	16	3.75	.76
2015 Teacher	13	3.92	.64
Pre-Service Teacher	19	3.74	.93
Total	48	3.79	.79

7.8.5 Schools and Community Engagement

Four community members recommended that schools promote the arrival of new teachers. Perry thought this would assist with developing community networks for the teacher, while Heath suggested teachers move to the remote community a week or two before the school year commenced to allow time to settle into the community, meet a few community members and familiarise themselves with local shops. He believed this would enable the community to become more familiar with them. He cautioned that if teachers want to be accepted by the community, they need to accept the community.

Harriet suggested the schools hold an open day, not just for parents, but for the business community as well so that teachers could meet more members of the community. Danelle proposed that the schools promote their activities and achievements in the wider community, and a past teacher, PT20, suggested teachers from all of the remote schools get together for community social functions. Since this study was conducted, at least one of the schools in the remote region sited in this study has regularly promoted student successes and school activities on its Facebook page.

7.9 Suggestion #8: Improve Sustainability

Sustainability of programs, initiatives and relationships relies on the retention of teachers beyond 3 years. Suggestions relating to sustainability focused on maintaining school structures, curriculum and educational programs. With the constant turnover of teachers, and even principals, it is quite difficult to develop and continue programs, and at times curriculum subjects, the following year. This difficulty was highlighted by two past teachers and Wendell. Based on personal experience, PT4 recommended having sustainable structures in the school. Examples suggested were: "… curriculum maps already developed, clear plans and expectations, set of non-negotiables". She explained that during the time she spent in a school in a remote Tasmanian community, she experienced a "… very ad hoc approach. We put a lot of work into trying to develop a program or structure but it wasn't sustainable with changing principals and staff".

Another past teacher, PT7, advocated that continuity of teaching staff and programs. She believed students left the school she had been at, after subject options she had provided, were cancelled due to her departure. Section 5.4.2.8, referred to Kelli, a past teacher and principal, who commented about the lack of structure in the school she was at. Kelli was

aware that attempts had been made to put programs in place, but that with the change in staff and in leadership nothing was sustainable.

7.10 Suggestion #9: Outsource Management of Houses

In section 6.2.1, it was mentioned that Tasmania is the only state in Australia that requires principals to oversee the allocation and management/maintenance of teacher housing in the communities where they work. This observation links with a remark made by a futures committee representative, Frank, who commented on the use of principals as property managers,

> They gave the principals a budget to spend on these things and I think that's pretty ordinary approach, expecting principals to be the landlords and managing that. There was some issue in regards to complaints about some teachers that simply weren't looking after properties.

He continued, saying that if there were maintenance needs the only option was to "… go and have a whinge to the principal … I saw examples of that and that's just a ridiculous system." Although principals in remote schools might be informed of maintenance issues, there might be other school-based priorities with the result that the principal might not attend to the maintenance need in the timeframe expected by the teacher.

There is a legal requirement for tenants to physically inspect a property prior to signing a lease agreement (see Section 5.5.3.2), however, in the remote communities in this study teachers were allocated a house, and moved in before the lease agreement was signed. A possible reason for this is that teachers generally move in during the summer prior to the new school year and the principals, their landlords, might not be in the community at this time. Principals are required to sign a lease agreement even though, they themselves are the landlord. The industrial agreement that states the provision of a "… fair and equitable

assignment of duties to permanent employees", but while principals in remote areas are required to be landlords, they have additional duties compared to principals in non-remote schools.

As mentioned in Section 6.6.1, most principals in the remote schools are first time principals focusing on school matters rather than those of landlord. Principals are appropriately focused on developing working relationships with their staff. Outsourcing the management of houses would eliminate any crossover strain between the teacher/principal, tenant/landlord relationship enabling teachers and principals to attend to school based relationships and responsibilities that have student education and outcomes as the primary focus for both parties. Frank proposed a whole of government approach to managing housing. He said,

> If you look at the amount people that are in remote Tasmanian communities, the amount of government employees that are there. There's any amount enough to have somebody looking after all of that. If you package it all up, it's just a matter of getting police and health and the education side of it at all packaged into one.

7.11 Discussion

Section 7.2, presented the suggestion to personalise incentives. The theories of planned behaviour and mobile autonomy can be used to explain how personalising incentives could be effective in attracting and retaining teachers. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) aims to predict and understand human behaviour and the motivation to perform that behaviour (Boslaugh, 2013). The first suggestion of personalising incentives aims to provide the motivation for beginning teachers, experienced teachers, and principals to accept an appointment in a remote community. Personalising incentives provides the external factor of the cooperation of others identified in the TPB because it requires the DoE and remote

communities to offer personalised incentives for teachers and principals to work in remote communities. The inclusion of money either as a direct payment or by way of reimbursement for costs, addresses an external factor that influences planned behaviour. One of the independent factors in the TPB is attitude. For some teachers and principals personalising incentives might influence their attitude towards performing the behaviour of accepting an appointment in a remote area and, as Boslaugh (2013) noted, the more positive the attitude, combined with sufficient perceived control, the more likely a behaviour is to be enacted.

Personalising incentives addresses mobile autonomy (explained in Section 2.3.3) as it addresses the three components of the theory: the neoliberal subject, autonomy, and the freedom of mobility. Verdouw (2017) identified a number of characteristics of neoliberals including them being calculating, future orientated, and materialistic, all of which could be addressed with personalised incentives. Including incentives such as, longer term contracts, career pathways planning, targeted PD based on the teachers interests rather than current school based requirements, and access to paid sabbatical or study leave, as components of individualising incentives supports those who are future oriented, as does the option to hold a school-based position open elsewhere for teachers who remain in remote communities for more than 3 years. Christman (2015) recognised autonomous individuals as being those directed by their own considerations, desires, conditions and characteristics. Personalising incentives enables teachers and principals to consider their own desires and conditions when negotiating incentives. Providing choice in housing and the particular community in which to live would address the need for a sense of freedom in mobility as teachers and principals would make personalised choices to address their expectation of quality of housing.

The suggestion to focus on providing support to inexperienced beginning teachers working in remote communities was discussed in Section 7.3. There were requests to have experienced teachers to support beginning teachers, have experienced, caring senior staff to

support young teachers, and have strong leadership to lead and support staff. Providing support to beginning teachers within the first 3 months of employment is imperative (Downes & Roberts, 2018). The application of Bowlby's attachment to organisational support (Game, 2008), can be used to stress the importance of appointing experienced teachers, senior staff, and principals to schools in remote communities. Employee-supervisor (teacher- senior staff/ principal) relationships have similar functions of Bowlby's attachment. In times of need beginning teachers need to be able to seek proximity from senior staff and/or principals in a safe and supportive environment where learning can take place. Beginning teachers are learning to be teachers and they need leaders within the school that will nurture and support this process.

Section 7.4, provided the suggestion to review staffing practices. Lyons (2009) and Sharplin (2002) noted the difficulty of attracting experienced teachers and principals to remote communities. Most teachers and principals gain experience in urban schools where collegial support and collaboration with other experienced teachers (and experienced principals) is readily available. Taking experienced teachers and principals away from such schools requires a considered approach. Developing a workforce plan in order to meet predicted needs, would support the need for mobile autonomy of experienced teachers and principals, and attachment theory and the TPB for beginning teachers. Understanding mobile autonomy in relation to experienced teachers and principals might assist with addressing the issue. Self-responsibility and initiative are signs of success for neoliberal subjects who value money, comfort, leisure and success. To attract experienced teachers and principals to remote communities, any provision of incentives, enticements, or conditions of a personal or professional nature, should consider these characteristics.

Most experienced teachers and principals value their autonomy, or freedom to self-determine and self-govern. As Christman (2015) noted, autonomous individuals are driven by

their own considerations, desires and conditions, and when approaching experienced teachers and principals to work in remote areas, these drivers should be taken into consideration.

Mobility is the freedom to move from place to place. Freudendal-Pedersen (2009) and Gustafson (2014) noted that when people move, they do so for better opportunities in life so, in order to attract experienced teachers and principals to a remote community, the move needs to be perceived as offering a better professional opportunity than that which they already have.

Understanding attachment theory is important for recruiting experienced principals in remote schools because of the role they have in regard to beginning teachers. As Game (2008) and Paetzold (2015) noted, supervisors (principals) provide employees (teachers) the three functions and features of attachment theory. Principals should provide teachers with; proximity in times of need, a safe haven when obtaining social support, a safe place to explore and learn. It is, therefore, important to select experienced principals who demonstrate a high level of emotional intelligence. Many beginning teachers seek these professional attachments in lieu of personal attachments left behind.

Developing a workforce plan and/or offering scholarships is consistent with the TPB in regard to beginning teachers. The TPB incorporates factors such as opportunity, skill, time, money and the cooperation of others (Ajzen, 1991, 2012; Boslaugh, 2013). Devising a workforce plan and promoting the plan in universities in conjunction with available incentives available, and/or offering scholarships would provide PSTs with the opportunity to plan for the prospect of working in a remote community, and knowledge of future employment might provide them with the motivation to perform the behaviour. Having and promoting a workforce plan at universities and/or offering scholarships incorporates the influencing factors of opportunity, skill, time, money and the cooperation of others. PSTs are given the opportunity to potentially prepare to work in a remote school during PE (including

undertaking a PE placement and accessing the Professional Experience in Isolated and Remote Schools (PEIRS) program). During their teacher education, PSTs are developing the skills required to undertake such a placement – including opting to take electives that focus on remote teaching and living. Promoting the workforce plan at universities could provide PSTs with the knowledge of when positions will become available, and how long they should expect to have a position for. Other than the prospect of future employment, for some PSTs the possibility of receiving remuneration once employed in remote communities might encourage them to consider employment in these communities. Offering a scholarship that requires a defined number of years of service in a remote school after graduation would guarantee them of a position with certainty about the minimum length of time they would work in a remote community for. Including financial support such as for university costs, accommodation, or payment of HECS (or part thereof) in the scholarship is consistent with the money component of the TPB.

The fourth suggestion, provide support to teachers and principals, was discussed in Section 7.5. This included the suggestion to provide beginning teachers working in remote schools with opportunities to visit schools outside of remote communities for networking and sharing of ideas is consistent with mobile autonomy. It supports the neo-liberal subject in that it affords them opportunities to accept responsibility and to take initiative in relation to their own learning and improvement through accessing experienced teachers otherwise not available in remote schools. Particularly, if the schools visited were of the teachers' choosing, might give them with a sense of autonomy because their considerations, desires, conditions and characteristics, defined by Christman (2015) as features of autonomy, would be taken into account, or in keeping with Buss and Westlund's (2015) definition of autonomy, teachers would be making up their own minds. The final aspect of mobile autonomy is having mobility and Gustafson (2014) noted that one of the reasons people moved to new locations

was for a better opportunity in life. Providing beginning teachers in remote areas access to experienced teachers based in urban or metropolitan schools, could afford them with better opportunities in their professional life compared to having no or very limited access to such teachers in a remote school.

A second component of supporting teachers, was supporting beginning teachers who were genuinely miserable living in a remote community. The proposal that stemmed from these concerns was the use of the Flexible Teaching Pool (FTP) as a potential support for unhappy teachers who had gained a permanent position (and who otherwise would be quality teachers if living conditions were not affecting them). Such an initiative can be aligned with the TPB, attachment theory, and place attachment. As discussed in Section 2.3.4, the TPB aims to predict the relationship between human behaviour and the motivation to perform the behaviour and includes factors of opportunity, skill, time, money, and the cooperation of others (Ajzen, 1991, 2012; Boslaugh, 2013). By making placement on the FTP available if the experience of living and working in a remote community proved detrimental to the mental well-being of beginning teachers, more final year PSTs might be motivated to apply for a permanent teaching position (perform the behaviour) because for those PSTs with no prior experience of remote communities might not otherwise apply for a permanent position out of fear of the unknown, and concerned about being stuck if they end up in an unhappy situation for 3 years (as required by permanent teachers schools such as those in this study). This level of support for genuinely miserable teachers would rely on the cooperation of others such as: principals, other DoE personnel, the AEU, and/or medical professionals.

Providing the possibility of being placed on the FTP is consistent with Bowlby's attachment theory (discussed in Section 2.3.2). Attachment is understood as an emotional bond (Hazan & Shaver, 1994) and comprises three features and functions: closeness, comfort, and security (Doherty & Feeney, 2004; Hazan & Shaver, 1994). The theory includes three

stages of disruption; protest, despair, and emotional detachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Beginning teachers may find themselves unhappy living in remote communities, because of the loss of attachment to all things familiar to them. They might be greatly affected by this loss and exhibit the three stages of disruption (protest, despair, and emotional detachment) and, as a result, find it extremely difficult to build connections and relationships with colleagues, students, and/or community members, thereby exacerbating the situation.

Providing the option to relocate closer to family and friends before the end of the standard 3 years, and being placed on the FTP, shows an understanding that beginning teachers, capable of gaining a permanent position, are still valued employees and are not penalised for not having known how living in a remote community was going to affect them. Simultaneously, providing the option of the FTP acknowledges the impact an unhappy teacher might have on students who may not be not be able to form a positive student-teacher attachment with an unhappy teacher. Feeling the effects of attachment disruption, might inhibit a teacher's ability to form a positive employee-supervisor attachment as identified by Game (2008) and Paetzold (2015). Having the option for unhappy permanent teachers to choose to be placed on the FTP and return to family and friends, acknowledges the connection between emotional detachment, and the development of place attachment.

In Section 2.3.5, place attachment was described as the attachment between individuals and the surrounding environment (Brown et al., 2015). Kyle et al. (2004) identified three components; affect, cognition and practice. Similar to the theory of attachment, place attachment relies on emotional attachment (affect). If beginning teachers are feeling the effects of separation from family and friends and exhibit the three stages of disruption in attachment theory, this will negatively impact on their ability to form attachment to place. Jean (2016) noted, place attachment includes neighbourhood attachment which, in turn, influences community participation.

Section 7.6, discussed revising professional experience practices. The suggestion to require PSTs to undertake at least one PE in a remote school, and to broaden the Professional Experience in Isolated and Remote School (PEIRS) program (or similar) to apply to all PEs rather than only the final one would be consistent with the TPB, and mobile autonomy. Requiring PSTs to undertake at least one remote PE placement and providing support to undertake that PE through a (modified) PEIRS program, is aligned with the TPB. It would provide PSTs with an opportunity to experience remote teaching prior to considering a future teaching placement. They would have time to consider in which year of the course to undertake a remote PE, based on their own considerations of previous experiences in remote communities, their current context, and what their professional goals are after graduation. PSTs would have time to recognise and, if necessary, develop personal and professional skills required for teaching and living in a remote community. They would be able to identify the monetary costs that might be involved. Including the requirement of a remote PE placement would address the three independent factors identified by Ajzen (1991, 2012). These are, attitude towards the behaviour including self-assessment of the behaviour, the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour, and the perceived level of ability to perform the behaviour. Notification on enrolment in a teacher education program of the requirement to undertake a remote PE should support the development of an attitude of acceptance as the requirement would be known from the outset. If PSTs are aware of the required remote PE placement when they enrol, then any perceived social pressure from family and friends should be reduced because they would be aware of the requirement. In terms of the perceived ability to perform the behaviour, PSTs would have time and opportunity to acquire the skills necessary, and to make arrangements to undertake a remote PE. Being able to choose the year in which to undertake the remote PE, as well as having

support through the PEIRS program would enable them to plan the placement based on their current context and the level of support they would receive.

Revising professional experiences practices, including the PEIRS program, supports the 21st Century lifestyle of having mobile autonomy. Providing a choice in which year to undertake a remote PE placement would enable PSTs as autonomous neoliberal subjects, to accept self-responsibility and initiative for deciding when it would best suit them to undertake a remote PE. It would enable them to make decisions based on their plans post graduation. Providing choice of year to undertake a remote PE aligns with being self-determining or self-governing both characteristics of being autonomous as defined by Dryden (2018). It enables PSTs to make a choice based on his/her own considerations, desires, and conditions, which are all characteristics of autonomy described by Christman (2015). Including a compulsory remote PE placement in teacher education courses provides PSTs with the opportunity to temporarily move to a new town and be exposed to potentially better opportunities by broadening their knowledge and understanding of communities outside urban and metropolitan centres, and therefore more options for post graduation employment they that otherwise might have considered.

Reviewing PST education courses was discussed in Section 7.7. There was a suggestion to include a compulsory unit that focussed on remote teaching and living, however, McConaghy (2006) believed prescribing remote teaching in a teacher education curriculum was near impossible because remote teaching belonged in the experience of place. Corbett (2010b) (see Section 2.3.1) stated it was important for teachers to embrace social theory in order to understand the social contexts and experiences of students.

Providing a compulsory unit on place-based education and pedagogy would provide PSTs with an approach to working and living in any community, but particularly in remote and/or disadvantaged communities. Place-based education is not new (Smith, 2002). Azano

and Stewart (2015), Bartholomaeus (2006), Gruenewald and Smith (2014), Gruenewald (2008), and Wallin and Newton (2014), have all promoted it. By supporting students with learning that is embedded in what is local, teachers are learning to use community members as resources and partners in teaching and learning. Teachers engage with community members and learn about the community, all which are elements of place-based education as cited by Bartholomaeus (2006).

Having such a compulsory unit would support teachers regardless of the community in which they taught because, as Azano and Stewart (2015) commented, including a place-based or place-conscious unit in teacher education could require PSTs to examine place as well as to focus on including place relevant pedagogies in their repertoires. Through a place-based education unit, PSTs would develop an understanding that getting to know a particular place, and understanding its relationships to and with other places, would assist them in living and working in the place (White, 2008).

Focusing on the lived experience of place puts place in context, and provides a connection between culture and the environment (Gruenewald & Smith, 2014). A place-based education would "… intentionally examine their own personal histories …"and focus on "… the nuances of their own cultural contexts and consider how they might be brought into dialogue with the cultural contexts of students with whom they will be working" (Azano & Stewart, 2015). Place-based education benefits students and their communities. Students recognise the value of their community (Bartholomaeus, 2006; Smith, 2002) and the community benefits from the contributions of the students (Smith, 2002).

In Section 7.8.1, it was noted that some teachers might not want to be involved in the community in which they teach and prefer to be left to their own devices; the community should accept this. A place-based education unit that addresses the question of 'What is local? and included consideration of the possible advantages of working with community

members, regarding them as resources, would make it apparent that in small communities there is an expectation of community involvement, and that teachers need to accept that they might need to change in an environment in which they are the minority. Information about the PEIRS program (Suggestion #5 in Section 7.6) could be explicitly included in this unit.

Offering an induction week during the final year of a teacher education program, is aligned with the TPB. As stated in Section 2.3.4, the theory aims to predict and understand the relationship between human behaviour and the motivation to perform the behaviour (Boslaugh, 2013) and includes the factors of; opportunity, skill, time, money, and/or the cooperation of others (Ajzen, 1991, 2012; Boslaugh, 2013). It includes attitude, perceived social pressure, and the perceived ability towards undertaking the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991, 2012). Organising a week for PSTs to meet the various organisations that support graduates to gain employment in remote locations, as well as supporting them once they are there, would require opportunity, time, knowledge (skill) and the cooperation of the various representatives involved, and could enhance the motivation of PSTs to consider a remote teaching position after graduation. A change in personal attitude might balance any negative pressure from family and friends in relation to such a placement. In regard to self-perceptions of their ability to undertake a future placement, conversations with prospective employers and/or union representatives during the induction week might lessen any negative perceptions PSTs might have of the place or of their ability to work there.

The suggestion for teacher engagement in the community and for the community to engage with new teachers (see Section 7.8) is associated with place attachment, as described in Section 2.3.5. In addition, the reciprocal suggestion that remote communities support and value education, and education departments value remote communities, can be supported by providing place-based education, as discussed in Section 2.3.1.

Section 2.3.5, described how place attachment is a reflection of the bond between people and the place, based on dependence, identity and social bonding (Ramkissoon & Mavondo, 2015). The suggestion to provide a reception or other event that enables new residents to make connections with community groups or individuals is supported by Jean (2016). She noted that place attachment encompasses neighbourhood attachment, and that neighbourhood attachment was influenced by local networks and community participation. In Section 7.8.1, it was reported that Monica, a community member, aspired to get the community to embrace new people, and as Jean (2016) noted, neighbourhood attachment can influence the desire for people to stay or leave communities. Raymond et al. (2010) noted that the community influences community attachment and individual's sense of belonging. They found that individual connections to local social networks and the interactions within them were important elements of place attachment. Similarly, Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001) found that social attachments, were stronger influences than physical attachment in the formation of place attachment.

With the constant revolving door of teachers, people in remote communities are concerned that education departments do not value these communities, teachers are representatives of the education department and it is through teachers that the remote communities can be shown that they and the education of their children are valued. Teachers can do this by providing place-based education. Delivering place-based education in remote schools has a twofold outcome. Firstly, it requires teachers to understand where they are teaching, as well who they are teaching (Corbett, 2010a). It requires teachers to immerse themselves into the culture of place such as, by learning and knowing about the history, the exercise of power, the distribution of resources, the demographic dynamics that influence the social life, and how the community has historically experienced schooling (Corbett, 2010a). This requires teachers to become involved in the community and to learn about the

community and in turn sends a message to community members that they, and their community is important. As Heath advised, if teachers want to be accepted by the community, they need to accept the community, and place-based education provides an avenue for this. Secondly, community members can be used as resources and partners in the learning program (Bartholomaeus, 2006). Being involved in place-based education would enable community members to show that education is important to them, that they regard teachers as important, and that school is important, as suggested in Section 7.8.3.

Suggestion #8, Section 7.8, focusing on retaining teachers beyond the 3-year minimum requirement to support and improve sustainability in remote schools, can be associated with Bowlby's description of attachment theory (1958, 1960, 1961 as cited in Holmes (1993)), as explained in Section 2.3.2. In Section 6.6.3 the effects of high-teacher turnover on students' ability to form attachments to teachers was discussed and Section 1.4, highlighted the importance that Hattie (2003) placed on the influence of teachers on student outcomes. Hazan and Shaver (1994), noted it can take 2 – 3 years for students to form an attachment with a teacher, after which time, most teachers in remote communities leave. Teacher/student relationships cease along with some initiatives and programs put in place to support these students. As explained in Section 6.6.3, students who experience constant turnover of teachers, might refrain from developing student/teacher attachments as a form of self-preservation by avoiding the pain of broken attachments. Without attachment students may no longer find school a place of importance or significance, and attendance might be affected.

Outsourcing management of houses stemmed from the fact that principals in remote Tasmanian communities were, at the time of this study, responsible for the management of teacher accommodation, serving as landlords as well as supervisors. The application of Bowlby's attachment theory to organisations, as described by Game (2008) and Paetzold

(2015), explains why outsourcing the management of housing is critical to principal/teacher relationships.

Attachment theory has been extended beyond explaining childhood attachments to explaining attachments in relationships and processes in organisational research (e.g., Paetzold, 2015; Richards & Schat, 2011). Attachment theory explains how individuals use internal and social resources to respond to the demands and adversity they experience at work (Richards & Schat, 2011). The majority of teachers in remote communities are beginning teachers, and for many of these it is the first time they have moved away from family and friends. Some of these teachers experience the three stages of disruption to these attachments: protest, despair, and emotional detachment, as identified by Hazan and Shaver (1994). Game (2008) equated the supervisor and employee (principal and teacher) relationship to that of parent and child. She recognised the supervisor provided the same three functions and features to employees as a parent does for a child: proximity seeking in times of need, a safe haven for obtaining social support, and a safe base to explore and to learn.

However, if, as in Tasmanian remote communities, principals serve as landlords to teachers, this landlord/tenant relationship can affect the principal/teacher relationship. For example, in Section 7.10, Frank reported on complaints from principals that teachers were not looking after houses. Principals responsibility as landlords to follow this up could potentially jeopardise the principal/teacher relationship. Young inexperienced teachers, in particular, might find it difficult to separate the principal and landlord roles. In confusing the landlord/tenant and principal/teacher roles, not only might beginning teachers experience disruption to the attachment to family and friends, but their ability to form principal/teacher attachments could be hampered. Where the principal/teacher relationship is affected by the landlord/tenant role, some teachers may not feel the school is a safe base from which to

explore and to learn – especially in light of the lack of experienced teachers to turn to for support.

7.12 Summary of Chapter 7

This chapter used the qualitative data from the interviews, questionnaires and written responses from all participant groups and quantitative data from questionnaires to identify responses to the fourth research question:

What strategies do key stakeholders believe may work for attracting and then retaining teachers in Department of Education schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

Themes in the form of suggestions were generated from the combined interview data and relevant qualitative data (e.g. open responses on questionnaires) and were integrated in each suggestion theme. Suggestion themes from Chapters 4, 5 and 6 were included in this Chapter. Suggestions provided were ordered according to frequency of mention rather than by stakeholder responsibilities because education was recognised by all participants to be a shared responsibility.

Nine suggestions were presented in separate sections of this chapter with sub-themes providing the background to the suggestion. Section 7.2, presented the first suggestion, personalise the incentives. Section 7.3 attended to attracting experienced teachers and principals, and Section 7.4, suggested a review of staffing practices. Section 7.5, presented the suggestion of providing support to teachers and principals in remote communities. Section 7.6 suggested revising PE practices and the Professional Experience in Isolated and Remote Schools program. Section7.7, discussed reviewing PST education courses and Section 7.8, suggested supporting community engagement in the education of remote students. Retaining teachers (beyond 3 years) was suggested in Section 7.9, with the final suggestion, outsourcing the management of houses, discussed in Section 7.10. The discussion

in Section 7.11, highlighted the importance of the suggestions, and how the suggestions are supported by theoretical frameworks used in this study.

In the next and final chapter, Chapter 8, new ideas that have resulted from the findings of this study, are presented.

Chapter 8

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses three new ideas that have arisen from the findings of this study. The first, establishing a central body, a Centre for Remote Education, with the specific role to support schools in remote areas, derived from the recognition by participants that each of the identified stakeholders involved in attracting teachers to, and retaining them in, remote communities, had provided a range of initiatives independently of one another and that the lack of connection and coordination among them has reduced their effectiveness. This is discussed in further detail in Section 8.2. In Section 7.3.1, a 2015 teacher, CT2, suggested the remote schools sited in this study be identified as a training ground. This idea has been developed further with Professional Development Schools described in Section 8.3. In Section 7.8.2, a community member, Nicolas, proposed developing the region as an environmental education centre. This idea is developed further in Section 8.4. Section 8.5, provides a discussion of the overall findings, highlighting the complexity and difficulty of an issue that has been a century long, a national and international source of debate, discussion, and research – the attraction and retention of teachers to remote areas and highlighting the

need for imaginative thinking leading to innovative ideas that could make a difference. Section 8.10, provides a summary of the chapter.

8.2 Centre for Remote Education

Section 7.1.1, identified stakeholder views that education is a shared responsibility. These views included: UTAS collaborating with all systems to promote and sustain education, involving teachers and principals in local groups and committees, and including community leaders in education. In Section 8.1, it was stated that participants identified that stakeholders had provided a range of independent practices for attracting teachers to, and retaining them in, remote communities. Some of these practices had remained unchanged over decades. These disjointed, and unchanged practices offer scope for improvement for each stakeholder group operating at the time of this study. These suggestions give rise to establishing collaborative and informed practices among stakeholders, resulting in the concept of a Centre for Remote Education.

Participants in this study identified roles and responsibilities for the Department of Education (DoE), University of Tasmania (UTAS) teacher educators (TEs), the Australian Education Union (AEU), community members of remote communities, principals and teachers in remote communities, and pre-service teachers (PSTs). It is clear that remote education is a shared responsibility (Downes & Roberts, 2018). Wallace and Boylan (2009) discussed the rural lens which entails developing policies from rural places, rather than rural places trying to fit into policies that do not represent their requirements. In this study Perry, a community member made a similar comment when he advised,

> Rather than just have one strategic plan for schools across the state, they need to start diversifying a little bit and look at different places around the state, you know, isolated places may need a different tack to what they do in the cities.

The DoE, the members of the remote communities, universities, school principals and teachers in remote communities, and the AEU, each have a responsibility for the education of students in these communities and should be accountable for how education is provided. The non-school based DoE employee, suggested that stakeholders collaborate to develop a strategy and form an agreement, that includes desired outcomes, and that commits each stakeholder to bring to the table what they can offer in terms of supporting the attraction to and retention of teachers in remote communities. The implementation of such an agreement would need to be monitored and action taken to adjust it when required.

Other findings in this study suggest that practice current at the time involved stakeholders working largely independently of each other with each having implemented various strategies over the years. Some strategies have been collaborations between the DoE and UTAS such as the Professional Experience in Remote Schools (PEIRS) and Teacher Intern Placement Program (TIPP) programs, and an advisory committee had been formed that included representatives of the DoE and the remote communities. These partnerships had varying levels of success. PEIRS has had an element of success with the program being accessed by some PSTs who have chosen to undertake a final year PE placement in remote schools during the 20-year provision of the program. The TIPP program was launched in 2015, and has been successful in placing graduates in schools with identified shortages of teachers in priority teaching areas and/or in hard to staff schools (identified by the DoE), including but not limited to remote schools, since the commencement of the 2016 school year.

The focus of this section is a proposed Centre for Rural Education (the Centre) that would engage all stakeholders working together to ensure the provision of "… access to high-quality schooling that is free from discrimination based on … socioeconomic background or geographic location …" and to "… reduce the effect of other sources of disadvantage, such as

… remoteness" (Barr et al., 2008). There are similar facilities elsewhere that could guide the creation of such a centre. For example, the Australian Rural Health Education Network (ARHEN) supports University Departments of Rural Health (Australian Rural Health Education Network, 2018). In Tasmania, the Centre for Rural Health was established as part of this network in 1997 with the aim to "… improve access for rural and remote communities to appropriate health services by encouraging students to pursue a career in rural practice and supporting health care professionals working in these areas". In the report following a national survey for the Australian Government Department of Education, Science and Training, Lyons, Cooksey, Panizzon, Parnell, and Pegg (2006b) recommended that, "Centres of Excellence in rural and regional PST education be established at universities in each state and territory" (p. xi). The Centre could be located at the North West campus of UTAS, as is the Centre for Rural Health. The reason for this, is that the findings of this study suggest the Centre needs to be relatively close to the remote locations in order to minimise cost. DoE sites are either schools or office buildings and would not be suitable to incorporate such a Centre. Using UTAS as a location would provide access to libraries (research) as well as direct support to include compulsory units, such a place based education, into teacher education courses. Although the Centre could be based at UTAS, the findings of this study suggest it could usefully have a campus in the remote region to ensure that there is always somebody on the ground to provide support as well as to liaise with local businesses and community members.

The philosophy behind the Centre would be to unite all stakeholders in order to improve access for rural and remote communities to high-quality schooling, including, by encouraging teachers to undertake a rural appointment and to support teachers and principals working in these areas. Ways in which each of the various stakeholders might be involved are provided in the following section.

8.2.1 Stakeholder Involvement in the Centre

The DoE could provide representatives to liaise with the other stakeholder groups and provide support to teachers and principals in the remote communities. One area of support might include the housing. Currently principals are the landlords and managers of the housing. Findings in this study suggest a single body to oversee this for all DoE provided housing in Tasmania. The Centre for Remote Education (the Centre) could take on the role of landlord and manager including on-going communications regarding tenancy agreements and maintenance (including overseeing the budget). Alternatively, the Centre might have the responsibility for putting this role out for tender. Another option is, sharing the responsibility across government departments with employees located in the remote communities (e.g. police, health and forestry) and living in government provided accommodation. The accommodation could be shared across the departments and overseen by the Centre or outsourced for collective management.

The Centre could support principals. Most principals in the remote communities are first time principals and although they have a Principal Network Leader (PNL), the PNL is not based in the region because he/she is responsible for other schools. In addition, some of the kinds of support first time principals require is beyond the role of the PNL. For example, it is not the PNLs role to provide panel training for interviews. In Tasmania prior to holding interviews for any permanent position (teacher, teacher assistant, facility attendant) principals are to ensure they and their panel have had interview panel training. Rather than requiring principals and their panel to travel out of the region to this training, it could be provided in the region's campus for the Centre. As this study found, at times there is a revolving door of beginning principals so this type of training (or similar) would be an ongoing requirement for principals in remote regions. Alternatively, a DoE representative at the Centre could assist the principals in the remote communities by participating on interview panels. DoE selection

panels generally consist of members with knowledge of the work, or experience of working in a similar role, as well as an understanding of the selection process (Tasmanian Department of Education, 2017). This support would be invaluable for principals, particularly inexperienced principals who might not have been on previous panels. This would be additionally supportive if the Centre's DoE representative had previously worked in a remote community, and/or had prior experience on selection panels because they would likely be more familiar with the selection process than a novice principal might be.

The Centre could assist with the staffing of the remote schools. This study found that some positions are filled by anyone willing to accept a job but not necessarily by a quality teacher. It takes a lot of the principal's time to find new teachers at the end of every year, especially when there are multiple positions to be filled. At times, positions need to be filled without any time to vet the applicants. The Centre could assist with this. DoE representatives in the Centre could liaise with UTAS Faculty of Education representatives to source potential graduate candidates. Alternatively, the PEIRS program, or an enhanced version of it, could be used as part of an incentive for explicitly targeting high performing final year students. Specific PSTs could be approached to undertake a financially supported final year PE in a remote community, with the additional incentive of an offer of permanency for the following year, subject to successful completion of their teaching qualification. The Centre could take on a role of providing support for PSTs undertaking PE in remote communities rather than leaving this entirely to school staff. The Centre could, for example, provide assistance with accommodation, or present a welcome package. Alternatively, an enhanced version of the PEIRS program could include all years of teacher education and the Centre could oversee the promotion of the program at university level as well as support PSTs whilst undertaking PE in a remote community. This would meet one aspect of a recommendation from the Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (2000b) "…offer all students an option to

undertake a fully-funded practical placement (teaching experience) in a rural or remote school ...” (p. 44). It would enable more PSTs to undertake at least one PE in a remote school, rather than just a 6 week PE in the final year.

The Centre could source support from local businesses and industries to offer scholarships explicitly targeting teaching in the remote regions. Based on the education strategy for the region, scholarships could target Year 12 students from the remote community who wish to enter the teaching profession. The scholarship could be generic or target specific grade or subject areas. It could include provisions such as: financial support such as for accommodation whilst at university, contribute towards the payment of the Higher Education Contributory Scheme (HECS), or a laptop. The scholarship could include guaranteed employment after successful completion of their teaching qualification, along with a requirement to work in the remote community for a specific number of years with guaranteed permanency after a period of time. Scholarships could be used to encourage PSTs to undertake a PE in a remote community, and could include any of the previously mentioned components. The Centre could be involved by seeking funding for the scholarship, working with the schools in the region to identify prospective teachers, supporting these students to complete Years 11 and 12, supporting Year 12 students to apply for scholarships, and supporting recipients throughout their teacher education courses through to appointment as a graduate teacher.

The Centre could work closely with the university’s Faculty of Education to offer an information/induction day or week to PSTs regarding working in remote communities. This could involve local council members, past and/or present teachers from the remote communities, parents and students, and could include information regarding the benefits and challenges of working in remote communities.

Centre staff could liaise with other Australian universities and/or become a partner with Teach for Australia (see Section 2.7). Using Teach for Australia as a source for staffing schools would not only assist in the filling of vacant positions with quality teachers (Associates), but with providing coaching and mentors for the teachers (see Section 5.5.3.1) in the remote communities.

Another means of attracting experienced teachers, is through the promotion of the area to mature teachers as an opportunity to have a remote experience, and promote living in the area as a tree change. Classroom teachers who have recently retired (especially those who have previously worked in remote communities) might be enticed by the Centre to work in the communities as mentors to the beginning teachers. Retired teachers have a wealth of experience and knowledge that otherwise is lost. To access this wealth of knowledge, retired teachers could be offered contracted positions to work in the schools from for example, a given number of weeks, to a full year. With recent classroom experience but without the responsibility of being on class, the support of retired teachers could be invaluable for beginning teachers in the remote communities. Retired teachers could be enticed by an opportunity to give back while having a unique experience.

Another concern for teachers in remote areas was the lack of professional support and professional networks (see Section 5.4.2.3). It is quite difficult for beginning teachers to get to know the staff in the other schools in the region. Often beginning teachers are limited to accessing support from within their own school and in some schools, there are only three or four teachers and the principal. The Centre could coordinate support and networking opportunities among the schools in the region that was the site of this study. It could organise professional development (PD) to meet common needs. As previously mentioned, other government agencies such as police, health and forestry are based in these remote communities and with the limited access to professional teacher networks, the Centre could

adopt a whole of government approach and liaise with all government departments to provide combined professional networking opportunities. Having a campus of the Centre in the remote region would support such an initiative.

The data gathered in this study showed that there was little awareness among teachers and principals of the benefits/incentives that were available for teachers and principals in remote areas. Principals who are unaware of the incentives for which teachers are eligible, cannot promote them to their staff. Raising awareness of incentives could be a responsibility of the Centre. If personalised incentives were to be provided, the Centre could take on the responsibility of negotiating these. Based on the ineffectiveness of financial incentives however, and particularly when their value is significantly reduced by tax, it may be more effective to explicitly link financial benefits to the additional costs of living in the remote communities so that they are seen as compensation rather than rewards. Part or full payment of costs such as power would both compensate for the additional costs of power in the climate in the remote communities and provide greater value to teachers since they would not pay tax on such benefits. Should such an option for reimbursement of costs be provided, the Centre could oversee the reimbursement of these claims.

The Centre could be involved, in collating and curating educational resources across the four schools, including within the wider community so that they could be shared and utilised between the schools. These resources could include human resources located in the communities.

The Centre could support new principals unfamiliar with university programs such as the PEIRS program, to ensure PSTs receive what they are entitled to receive under the program. The Centre could be involved in the preparation, supervision, support and debriefing of PSTs who undertake a PE in remote communities. The Centre might liaise with

local businesses to identify opportunities for partner employment, and to promote employment opportunities to final year teacher education students.

At the time of this study, the Professional Learning Institute (PLI) provided generic PL. The Centre could provide region specific PL. Participants in this study recognised gaps between their teacher education course and what they needed as beginning teachers in a remote community. Relevant supports could be provided by the Centre. The Centre could address these gaps by, for example, supporting teachers to develop Individual Education Plans, and/or to complete risk management plans for excursions. It might source experienced teachers, including teachers who have previously taught in a remote community, willing to be involved in a PL network to provide sessions via Skype or social media. A particular focus of Centre provided PL could be assistance to identify the components of the personal, professional, and public domains to develop a spatial map as described by Halsey (2006) and discussed in Section 7.5.4, to enable principals and teachers to effectively engage in the community as professionals where they are susceptible to public scrutiny.

There were a number of comments from participants concerning a potential bigger role for community members in the education of students in the remote communities. As mentioned, members of the local council, school associations, parents, and business owners could all be involved in the Centre. Areas of involvement for community members not yet mentioned could include assisting in the assignment of community buddies, the instigation and development of community networks between the communities and teachers, and promoting the value of education throughout the region. This could include setting the region up as an environment education centre, as described in Section 8.4.

The Centre would include members from the remote communities with differing roles, according to their role in the community (e.g., council member, business owner). The Centre could liaise with the community members to assist with coordinating social or

sporting networks within the communities, as well as promoting to teachers what is available in the region – not just in the immediate community where they work. The Centre could work with community members who are willing to meet and greet new teachers when they arrive in the community at the beginning of the school year, or to be a point of contact to provide the assistance for locating, shops (including an awareness of shop hours), fuel, and gas supplies etc, as needed.

8.3 Professional Development Schools

Currently, beginning teachers provide the majority of the teaching staff in remote regions meaning that these regions are used as a training grounds but these schools are not promoted or resourced as such. The Centre could co-ordinate and develop the remote schools as a training ground to provide PSTs with the opportunity of grounded practice, as described by S. Collins and Ting (2017), and Kane (2003). This might involve PSTs undertaking coursework in the classroom of the remote school. Current models of teacher education are perceived as separating theory and practice (S. Collins & Ting, 2017; Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009), with universities responsible for theory, and school-based placements responsible for practice. Separating theory from practice, impedes PSTs recognition of the relevance of theory (S. Collins & Ting, 2017). S. Collins and Ting (2017) noted that combining these is fundamental for teaching in a classroom. Utilising remote schools as a training ground would provide PSTs with access to "… real teaching and real learning in the real world …" (S. Collins & Ting, 2017, p. 6), and contribute to a holistic approach to teacher education.

Darling-Hammond (2006) referred to such schools as professional development schools (PDS) and noted they do not generally exist in large numbers. She noted that through effective partnerships between schools, education departments, and universities, PDS can be

created to provide settings for teaching and teacher education. Promoting the schools as PDS could encourage experienced teachers (including teachers who have previously worked in the region) to work in the region as it would potentially provide them with better professional opportunities than that which they have already. This could be promoted through an expression of interest rather than through the transfer system, with positions available for 1 to 2 years and their substantive position held open for them. Promoting and advertising these positions could be one of the coordinating roles of the Centre. PDSs provide classroom teachers with the opportunity to be immersed in commonly shared educational norms and practices. The experienced teachers in PDS can be involved in practice-based, or action research with TEs and researchers (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Darling-Hammond (2006) suggested that classroom teachers in PDS can work closely with universities to be trained, or recognised as TEs with regular PD to improve their mentoring skills. Not only could the Centre liaise with UTAS to enhance teacher education programs and courses by way or preparing PSTs to live and work in a remote community, it could provide an avenue for TEs to work closely with teachers, and gain first hand experiences and regular insights into school operations.

8.4 Environmental Education Centre

In Section 7.8.2, a community member, Nicolas, proposed developing an environmental education centre in the region. He suggested packaging tours in order to promote the local industries such as; mining, fishing, and tourism. This concept could develop the location as a place for people to go to learn about these industries. He suggested the remote region should explore this proposal as a means of promoting the area with the aim of attracting teachers and other professionals, to the area. There are precedents for this type of idea at two other locations in Tasmania. One in the north of the state promotes schooling and

farming in the late 18th/early 19th Century, and the other centre in the south, provides a marine discovery experience. Similarly, to these, the schools in the remote region could be involved in the development and operation of the venture.

Working with the schools to develop the region as an environmental education centre would require a whole of school and community approach to provide students with the opportunity to develop insights into fishing, mining, and tourism industries and to potentially consider future employment in them. Such a venture would rely on partnerships between the local council, businesses associated with the fishing, mining, and tourism industries, students, parents, and the wider school community. All stakeholders involved in the initiative would be required for the success and sustainability of such a venture.

Other schools could be encouraged to visit the region and the sustainability of the environmental education centre could be enhanced by providing information and possibly tours and experiences for tourists who visit the region. This could further strengthen the centre's contribution to the development of students' career and work-related skills. The centre would support local businesses that rely on tourism, thereby adding further value to the community.

8.5 Discussion

The findings of this study, as well as the plethora of literature on the attraction and retention of teachers, highlights the complexity and difficulty of the issue that has been around for a century, and a source of national and international debate, discussion, and research – the attraction and retention of teachers to remote areas. It is not a result of a single problem, but as identified in this study, there are many reasons for which some teachers choose to teach in remote schools and subsequently choose to leave. The interconnectedness of these reasons means there cannot be a single solution.

This discussion highlights the issue of attraction and retention of teachers to remote regions is an example of a wicked problem as described by Rittel and Webber (1973) (see Section 1.5). Corbett and Tinkham (2014) stated, "declining rural populations and the provision of educational services is a *wicked problem* if ever there was one" (p. 693). This discussion reviews the findings and suggestions of this study using Rittel and Webber's (1973) narrative of a wicked problem.

Rittel and Webber (1973) noted that social practices are the links between organisations and interconnected networks. In this study, the social practice in focus was the attraction and retention of teachers to four remote Tasmanian communities. The organisations and interconnected networks recognised were: the DoE, principals and teachers at the remote schools, the community members (including but not limited to: parents, the local council, the education advisory committee, and business operators and owners), the Tasmanian branch of the AEU, TEs, and PSTs. Rittel and Webber (1973) noted that the outputs of one organisation or network became the inputs of another organisation or network. In this study, PSTs were the output of UTAS and the input of the remote schools and communities they served as beginning teachers and short-term community members. Because of the interconnectedness of these groups it is difficult to identify where the problem lies, and, as Rittel and Webber (1973) stated, it is hard to see "…where and how we should intervene…" even if we know what we are trying to achieve.

In this study, the focus was on the attraction and retention of teachers to the remote schools in order to improve student outcomes. There has historically been a high turnover of beginning teachers and first-time principals in remote communities. The suggestions arising from this study for improving the practice of attraction and retention to the remote schools demonstrate the complexity of identifying not only the where and how aspects of the issue, but who is responsible to intervene.

When one particular stakeholder attempts to solve a wicked problem there are repercussions for the others (Rittel & Webber, 1973). In improving certain aspects of society, there are consequences for many people that may manifest as further problems (Rittel & Webber, 1973). This study identified that one-off strategies had been implemented over time by various stakeholder groups and the repercussions recognised. For example, the teacher transfer policy (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013), which the AEU had supported, enabled teachers to transfer from remote schools after 3 years. While it addressed teachers' concern about being stuck in remote communities, a negative repercussion was that students in the remote communities witness a continuous change of teachers, with most leaving after 3 years. As identified in Sections 1.4, and 6.6.3, this churn of teachers has negatively influenced student outcomes. Similarly, incentive payments (see Section 6.2.2) aimed at attracting beginning teachers were considered not sufficient to attract experienced teachers, contributing to remote schools being predominantly staffed by beginning teachers.

Rittel and Webber (1973) found that with most wicked social problems, members of organisations tend to identify the locus of problems at a level other than their own. It is therefore, even more difficult to identify the action or actions, that might close the gap between the what is, and what ought to be. As Rittel and Webber (1973) stated, social or wicked problems can never be solved, but must be continuously re-solved. This study has offered suggestions that potentially could be overseen by one body (the Centre described in Section 8.2), to re-solve the wicked problem of attraction and retention of teachers to Tasmanian remote communities for early 21st Century.

The inherent wickedness (described in Section 1.5) of the problem of attracting and retaining teachers to remote communities has been well established by this study and others, nationally and internationally, over the last century, and most prominently, in the last three decades. To solve/re-solve a wicked problem, information to understand the problem is

needed but the information required depends on the ideas proposed for to solve it (Rittel & Webber, 1973). In other words, understanding the problem and its resolution are connected and must be approached iteratively. In this study, relevant information was sought from stakeholders who might potentially own the problem. Possible solutions were identified along with obstacles that included that the delivery of PST education (including PE) did not prepare beginning teachers for living in remote communities, inadequate processes and policies for appointment of teachers to remote areas, and the role the AEU.

My own ideas for how to solve the issues of teacher attraction and retention centred on encouraging teachers to stay beyond 3 years, and appointing experienced principals, but I did not know, if this is what other stakeholders thought, how this could be achieved, or who should be responsible. The aim of this study was to present suggestions for strategies that could close the gap between what I knew the situation to be and what I (and others) believed it should be.

As stated in Section 1.5, understanding a problem is not possible without knowing the context. With 12 years of experience in the remote region I had a good grasp of the context and had a reasonable understanding of the problem, and believed the solution, if there was one, would be found within the stakeholder groups. Section 3.3, described how many decisions about the practice of attracting and retaining teachers in remote communities that were the sites of this study were made by people who may have had no, limited, or dated experiences of having lived and worked in a remote community and who, therefore, may not have known the context or fully understood the nature of the problem. As my study progressed, I gained a greater understanding of a number of problems involved with attracting teachers to remote areas and then retaining them there. The suggestions provided in Sections 7.2 - 7.10, and in Sections 8.2 - 8.4, were developed as I considered the data. The wicked problem was understood and solved/resolved iteratively.

Figure 2.1 in Section 2.3, showed the theoretical framework used in this study with the sequential interconnectedness between place-based education, Bowlby's attachment theory, mobile autonomy, the theory of planned behaviour and place attachment. Figure 8.1 shows the connections between why teachers choose to teach/not to teach in a remote community, why teachers leave remote communities, why some teachers stay longer than 3 years, and the theoretical framework used in this study.

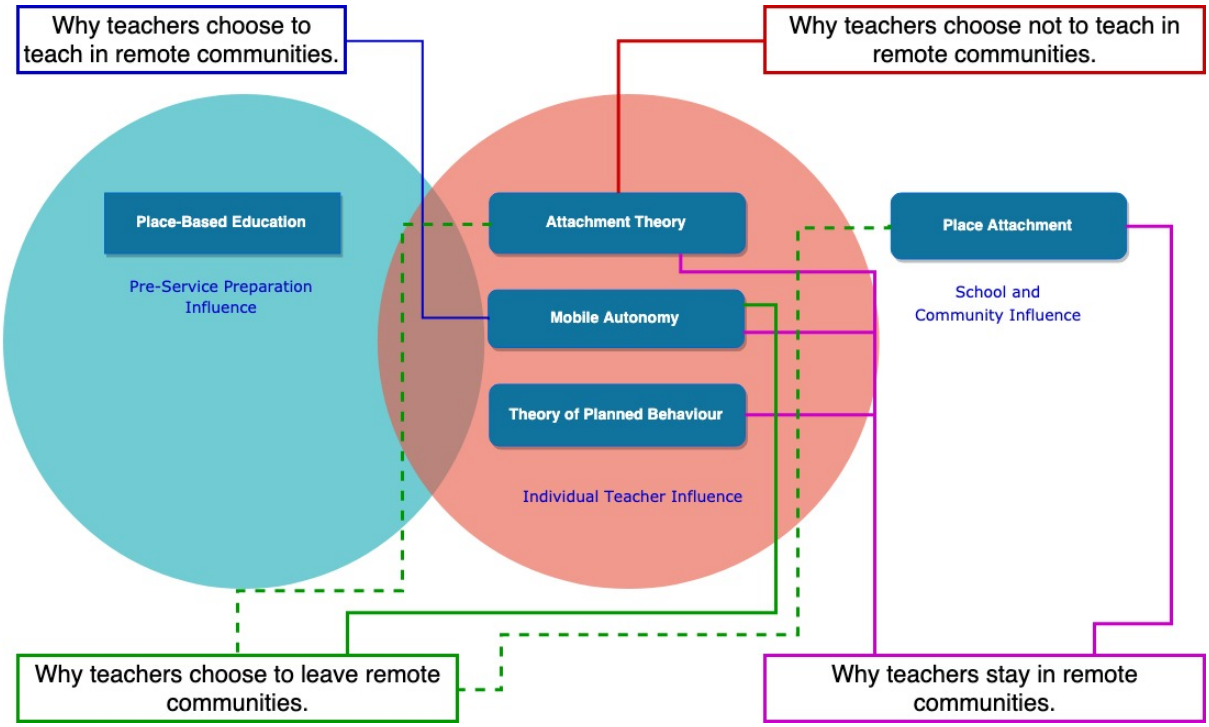

Figure 8.1. The connection between the theoretical framework and reasons for teachers choosing to teach/not to teach, leave/stay in remote communities.

Findings from this study shows the theoretical concept that supports teachers choosing to work in remote communities in based on having mobile autonomy. Choosing not to teach in remote communities is largely explained by Bowlby's attachment theory. Teachers leaving remote communities can be explained by having mobile autonomy. Teachers leave remote areas to repair the disruption to their attachments to family and friends that was caused by the initial move to work and live away from them. Teachers who leave

have generally not developed place attachment to the remote communities. Teachers who choose to stay can be aligned to attachment theory (having partner/spouse or other family in the community), mobile autonomy, the theory of planned behaviour, as well as develop a degree of place attachment.

Figure 8.2 shows the connection between the conceptual framework used in this study and the strategies in place at the time of this study.

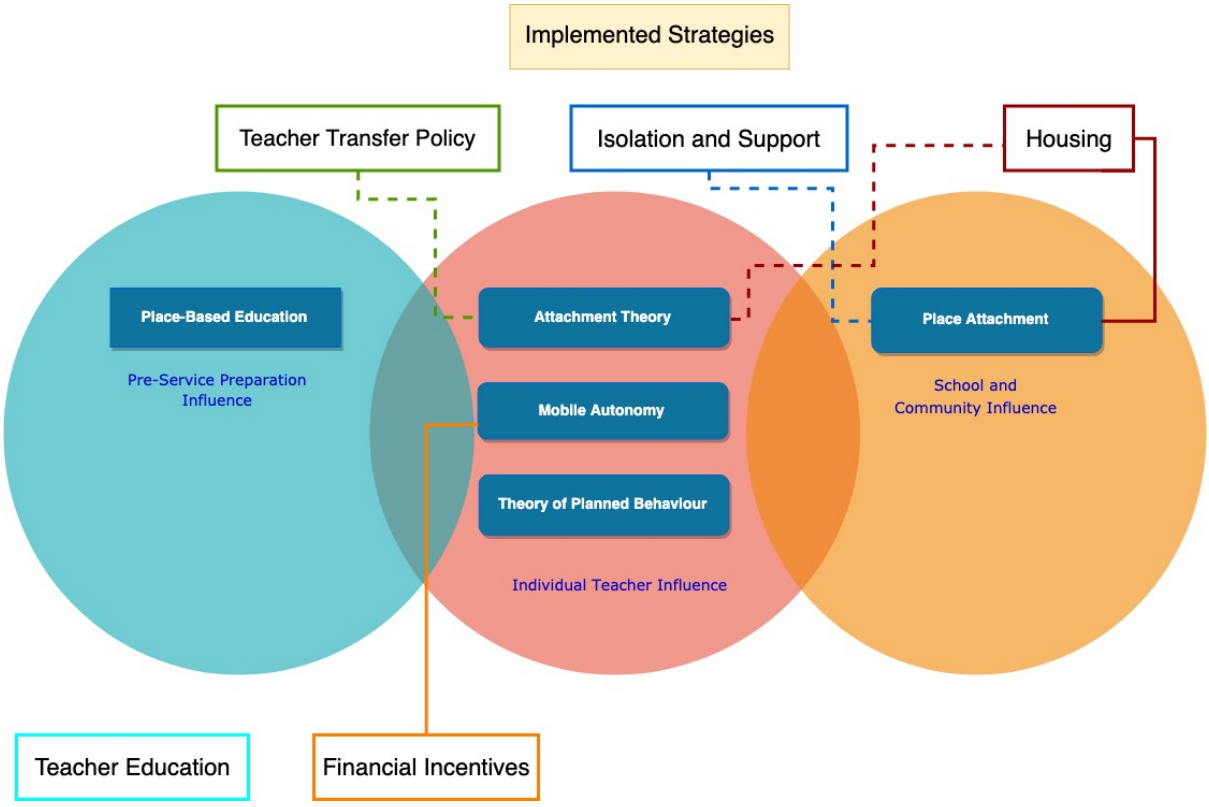

Figure 8.2. The connection between the theoretical framework and the strategies used at the time of this study for attracting teachers to, and retaining them in, remote Tasmanian communities.

The teacher transfer policy resulted in broken attachments between teachers and their family and friends, as well as affected attachments between students and teachers, due to the constant teacher turnover. The support for isolation recognised geographical isolation but did not acknowledge the effects of other forms of isolation on teachers. Findings in this study

found the quality of housing provided to teachers in remote communities, at the time of this study, influenced the level of place attachment teachers developed whilst in the remote community. The practice of principals serving as landlords confused the relationship between principal/teacher and landlord/tenant which therefore affected the development of organisational attachment within Bowlby's attachment theory. At the time of this study the majority of teachers did not believe teacher education prepared them to work and live in remote communities. The financial incentives provided at the time of this study supported and encouraged mobile autonomy at the detriment of most teachers leaving after 3 years.

Figure 8.3 shows the connection between the conceptual framework used in this study and the suggestions presented in this study.

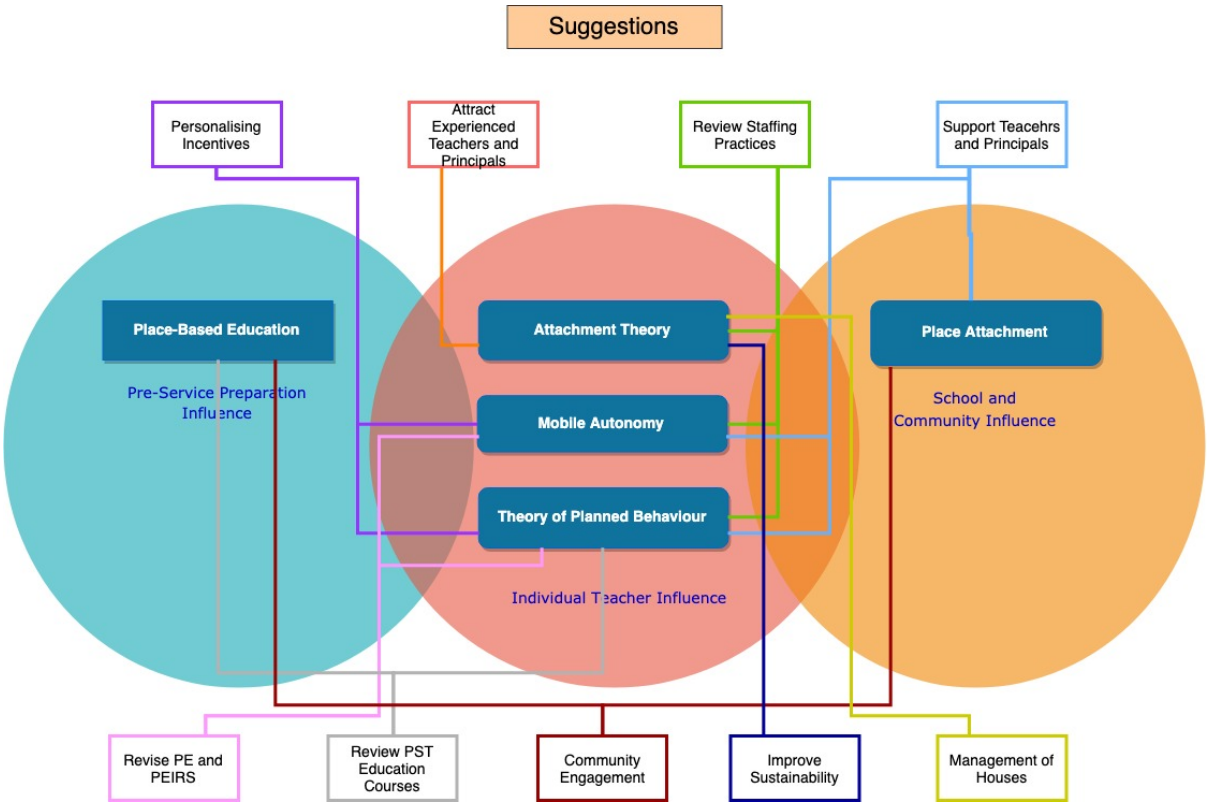

Figure 8.3. The connection between the theoretical framework and attracting teachers to, and retaining them in, remote communities.

The suggestion to personalise incentives is aligned with mobile autonomy and the theory of planned behaviour. What is an incentive for one person, is a deterrent to another. Providing personalised incentives would address this as well as provide for the neoliberal, independent mobile teacher of the 21st Century. They would potentially influence the intention of working in a remote school. Attracting experienced teachers and principals supports the development of organisational attachment, providing beginning teachers the opportunity to seek proximity in times of need, a safe haven for obtaining social support, and a safe base to explore and to learn. Reviewing the practice of staffing remote schools generally, would address organisational attachment theory, the need for mobile autonomy, and the theory of planned behaviour. Findings in this study show that providing support for principals and teachers in remote communities is linked to mobile autonomy, the theory of planned behaviour, and place attachment. Revising professional experience, and the Professional Experience in Isolated and Remote Schools program would support mobile autonomy and the theory of planned behaviour. Reviewing preservice teacher education would focus on plave-based education and support teaching in any school in Tasmania. Teacher education at the time of this study prepared teachers to work in schools based in larger urban areas. Encouraging community engagement is linked to plave-based education as well as supporting place attachment. Improving the sustainability of educational programs and teachers in remote schools is linked to attachment theory as it would support teacher/student relationships. Readdressing the management of houses would remove the conflict between principal/teacher and landlord/tenant where an adverse landlord/tenant relationship could negatively affect the organisational attachment beginning teachers require with principals.

The completion of this study does not terminate work on the problem. To some extent it is the beginning of re-solving the problem for the specific remote schools in this study at

this time. As mentioned in Section 1.5, there are no true or false answers to a wicked problem and there is no way of knowing whether all the solutions to a wicked problem have been identified or considered, and therefore the aim should be to solve the problem as best as possible. As described in Section 1.5, Rittel and Webber (1973) stated that if smaller problems are addressed individually, for example, focusing on attracting beginning teachers, there is a possibility that the solution will make the problem worse because it is more difficult to address the larger problem, attracting teachers of varying levels of experience to remote communities and encouraging them stay. This study focused on beginning teachers as well as experienced teachers for staffing of remote schools. Section 1.5, discussed the fact that if undesirable consequences do arise, the problem would have been better served had nothing been implemented. This might explain why the wicked problem of attraction and retention of teachers to remote regions has existed for so long because the full extent of consequences of an action cannot be assessed until all implications have been identified, and all the implications cannot be identified ahead of time, or in a limited timeframe. As mentioned in Section 7.1, Wendell commented that several strategies implemented by the DoE to address the issue had been implemented but not for long enough to assess the consequences before a new strategy was implemented. One long term consequence of the solution enabling teachers to transfer out of the region after 3 years, was the revolving door of teachers that currently exists in remote schools, and many lives have been irreversibly influenced (in this situation the most notable are past students of remote schools), and large sums of money have been irretrievably spent.

The attraction and retention of teachers to remote regions will continue to be a concern and, therefore, the source of further debate and research. However, recognition that it is a wicked problem should not be a reason to stop trying to re-solve it. Renewed thinking and imaginative solutions are required.

8.6 Where to Next?

As stated in Section 3.6, this research identified key stakeholders who had influenced current practice and also those affected by these practices as potential sample groups. These stakeholders were:

- Principals and teachers who had taught (since 2000) or were teaching in one of the four remote government schools in 2015;
- Faculty of Education staff from the University of Tasmania who were responsible for planning and implementing preservice teacher education programs;
- Final year pre-service teachers from the School of Education at the University of Tasmania;
- The General Manager of Learning Services North West (the region in which the schools were located) as well as Department of Education Human Resources personnel based in Learning Services North West (since 2000) (Learning Services North following amalgamation in 2015);
- The Minister for Education and/or the Secretary to the Minister;
- Department of Education Tasmania employees who had been responsible for overseeing the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools program;
- The North/North West Industrial Officers on the Tasmanian Branch of the Australian Education Union (AEU) 2000-2015; and
- Representatives from the remote community, including parents (School Association and Parents and Friends committees), local business people, local council members and employees, and members of a remote Tasmania Futures Committee.

It is therefore essential these stakeholders are provided with the opportunity to access the findings. To enable the four remote government schools focussed in this research, as well

as the respective parent groups access to the findings, a copy of the thesis will be sent to each of the four schools. A copy of the research will be provided to the local council of the remote communities enabling council members and employees, and local businesses access. The University of Tasmania will be provided with a copy of the thesis to be placed in the library, enabling access by faculty members and students. To provide Department of Education personnel access to the findings a copy will be sent to the Department of Education of Tasmania via the Educational Performance Services. With references to industrial agreements included in the thesis, the Tasmanian Branch of the Australian Education Union will be given a copy.

8.7 Contributions of the Study

Two areas this study has contributed to the field of research in rural/remote teaching is in the development of mobile autonomy as a conceptual framework and the use of typologies to explain reasons why teachers choose to leave (after 3 years) or choose to stay (longer than 3 years) in remote communities.

The first contribution to the field of research in rural/remote teaching is the development of mobile autonomy as a theoretical framework. This evolved from the data collected in this study and is an important outcome of this study. The framework is a combination of three separate existing concepts: the neoliberal subject, autonomy, and the freedom of mobility. Whether choosing to teach in a remote location, choosing not to teach in one, choosing to leave a remote community, or choosing to stay, teachers demonstrated characteristics of neoliberalism, autonomy, and mobility and when combined, mobile autonomy as a framework developed.

The second area this study has contributed to the field of research in rural/remote teaching is introducing typologies for explaining why some teachers leave rural/remote

teaching, and others remain. As stated in Section 3.7.3, the types identified in this study were constructed using a four-step process: identifying similarities and differences between variables; grouping the types and analysing the properties of each type; continually comparing types and identifying relationships between each of the types; with the fourth step, describing the types more extensively to include specific attributes and relationships.

In relation to teachers who choose to leave remote communities after 3 years, this study identified four types of teachers who choose to for work related reasons (What's in it For Me? (WIIFM), Foreboders, Support Seekers, and Lonely Petunias), two types who leave based on lifestyle and living arrangements (City Slickers and Negative Nellies) and two types of teachers who choose to leave for family reasons (Homing Pigeons and Altruists).

Furthermore, this study identified four types who choose to remain in remote communities beyond 3 years. Two types of teachers who stayed for work related reasons were identified (Change Agents and Constants). This study identified one type of teachers who chose to stay for lifestyle reasons (Embracers), and family (Familiars).

The typologies presented in this study is one approach to understanding why some teachers leave, and others remain. Using the lens of typology as an approach to this long-term issue, holds promise for the beginnings of a theory that focuses on the retention of teachers to remote education and is open to future scrutiny and falsifying.

8.8 Research Limitations

The findings of this study have been presented in light of some limitations. The limitations relate to methodological and researcher limitations. These included: limited access to people, the questionnaire instruments, techniques used for data analysis, and my familiarity with the majority of participants.

First, this study relied on having access to teachers and principals who had previously worked in one of the remote schools sited in this study. Accessing names of these people was limited because at the time of this study, the Tasmanian Department of Education did not keep a data base pertaining to this information. This resulted in contacting past teachers and principals known to me and requesting names of past teachers and principals known to them. Due to lack of time constraints in the turn around time of this information, using the names provided to use snowball sampling was not possible. This limited access to people provided only 50 names of past teachers and principals from the 15-year timeframe requested, with some of those having left the state/no longer teaching. Accessing community members was also limited because this relied on using (unknowingly) an out of date directory available on the council's website at the time of this study, with a number of the listed businesses no longer operating. Using snowball sampling within the community would have assisted with locating community members unknown to me. Although access to people was limited it did not deter from the quality of data provided by those who did participate.

Second, the completion rate of all four questionnaires was quite low. Two possible reasons for the low return could be the instruments used to collect the quantitative data might have been too long, or, using email as the distribution process might not have been an effective process to use. Zohrabi (2013) found return rates of posted or emailed questionnaires were low compared to face-to-face methods, but face-to-face methods do not reach as many people, and prohibit anonymity.

A limitation based on the analysis of the qualitative data was using the research questions as the tentative categories (see section 3.7.1.1). This method of analysis was chosen to ensure the questions were answered, but in doing so caused some overlap of the data, and may have prevented further synthesis of the data.

Fourth, due to my 8 years as principal in one of the schools at the focus of this study, I had varying levels of familiarity with of the majority of participants in the face-to-face interviews. In order to limit the bias my familiarity might have had the use of direct quotes was favoured more often than summarising their comments. Although this may have produced an overuse of direct quotes, it ensured participants' own versions of their experiences were reported rather than my knowledge of them influencing summarisations. I included my own experiences in the remote communities (in italics) to address potential subjectivity by keeping my experiences separate from the findings, thereby detaching myself as a researcher from the researched to ensure objectivity.

The following section provides recommendations for future research based on the identified limitations of this study as well as recommendations for future research that rose from the data.

8.9 Recommendations for Further Research

The first limitation identified in this research was access to past teachers and principals of the four remote schools and community members – particularly the business sector. Starting the process of accessing people early in the research, in order to provide more time to use snowball sampling, would be recommended for future research. According to Noy (2008) snowball sampling can provide emergent, political and interactional knowledge. He found social knowledge emerged from snowball sampling because it made use of natural social networks.

The second limitation was in regard to instruments. A number of the items in the questionnaires used in this study were the exact wording, or paraphrased wording, of instruments used by Roberts (2004). Martinez, Lewis, and Weiner (2014) highlighted a number of instrumentation issues in research, one of which was the use of adapted

questionnaire instruments. They noted that developing new instruments was essential for data interpretation but also noted time constraints and lack of expertise was influential in the use of adapted instruments. A recommendation for future research would be to develop new instruments rather than adapting instruments from other researchers. This would lead to more concise instruments with the potential to support a higher percentage of completed questionnaires with the addition of providing thicker data.

In regard to analysing qualitative data, a recommendation for future research would be to develop tentative categories independent of research questions, allowing flexibility when developing these categories to include new observations and directions during analysis (Dye, Schatz, Rosenberg, & Coleman, 2000). When defining initial categories, Dey (1993, as cited in Dye et al., 2000) recommended being attentive and tentative - attentive to the data and tentative in conceptualising them.

As stated in Section 8.7, two areas this study contributed to the field of research in rural/remote teaching, were identified. The first was in the development of mobile autonomy as a conceptual framework, and the second area was in the use of typologies to explain reasons why teachers choose to leave (after 3 years) or choose to stay (longer than 3 years) in remote communities. A recommendation for future research in relation to mobile autonomy, is to not only apply the conceptual framework to further research related to the attraction and retention of teachers in other locations both nationally and internationally, but apply the framework to medical and/or policing where attraction and retention might be a concern.

The use of typologies was another area this study contributed to the field of research in rural/remote teaching. The typologies that emerged in this study are open to further scrutiny. It is recommended that future research refine the identified typologies and potentially identify new typologies. One aspect identified in this study was that some teachers

thrived in remote communities and others didn't (see Section 6.6.5). Future research might identify typologies to explain why this is the case.

This study discussed how the practice of supplying teachers to remote communities has resulted in a revolving door of teachers and has highlighted the concern this practice had on teachers. One area of focus for future research is identifying if the effects of the various types of isolation are impermanent, or is there a premise for concern? The study also found physical isolation (geographical location and weather) was the only form of isolation recognised and addressed byway of a financial incentive. Future research might focus on the different forms of isolation and how these might be recognised and acknowledged. Additionally, future research might address the effect of the revolving door of teachers in remote communities on student attendance and behaviour, as well as long-term effects this practice has on students beyond them leaving school. Has the potential damage of this practice to students, been underestimated?

8.10 Summary of Chapter 8

Section 8.2, presented an idea that would provide a central body, a Centre for Remote Education, with the specific role to support schools in remote areas. The concept of a Centre for Remote Education suggested a completely new shared approach in Tasmania to the provision of education in the four remote communities at the focus of this study. This is based on the Nigerian proverb, "It takes a village to raise a child". Section 8.3, discussed developing the schools in the remote communities as professional development schools. This aligned with the current practice of mostly staffing schools with beginning teachers, but extended this to, staffing with experienced teachers, and collaborate with the University of Tasmania. Section 8.4, expanded a suggestion to develop an environmental education centre in the region. Section 8.5, provided a discussion on the overall findings, highlighting the

complexity and difficulty of a wicked problem that has been a century long source of national and international debate, discussion, and research – the attraction of teachers to and retention of teachers in remote areas. Section 8.6, provided details for the dissemination of the findings as well as stating where responsibilities lie for responding to the findings of this study. Section 8.7, discussed the emergence of a new conceptual framework, mobile autonomy, and the use of typologies as a new approach to understanding teacher retention in remote communities. Limitations identified in the study were presented in Section 8.8, with Section 8.9, providing recommendations for future research stemming from the limitations as well as recommendations based on questions that arose from the data.

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Appendix A

Year 5 Student Outcomes 2011 - 2015

Table A1

The comparison of the Tasmanian Mean Scale Score with the average score of the four government schools in remote Tasmanian communities for Year 5 in 2011

	Reading	Persuasive Writing	Spelling	Grammar and Punctuation	Numeracy
Tasmania	410.1	400.7	394.2	410.5	392.3
Frazer	494	490	489	533	507
Gould	395	428	395	416	431
McDonald	403	429	374	405	436
Montana	511	469	486	510	500

Table A2

The comparison of the Tasmanian Mean Scale Score with the average score of the four government schools in remote Tasmanian communities for Year 5 in 2012

	Reading	Persuasive Writing	Spelling	Grammar and Punctuation	Numeracy
Tasmania	491.7	471.5	480.8	479.3	480.4
Frazer	467	455	448	507	492
Gould	409	416	406	375	424
McDonald					
Montana					

Note: Data was not available for McDonald or Montana.

Table A3

The comparison of the Tasmanian Mean Scale Score with the average score of the four government schools in remote Tasmanian communities for Year 5 in 2013

	Reading	Persuasive Writing	Spelling	Grammar and Punctuation	Numeracy
Tasmania	496.1	464.9	477.0	484.6	471
Frazer	532	514	520	550	515
Gould	499	434	423	437	429
McDonald	469	432	466	474	479
Montana	467	441	470	473	455

Table A4

The comparison of the Tasmanian Mean Scale Score with the average score of the four government schools in remote Tasmanian communities for Year 5 in 2014

	Reading	Persuasive Writing	Spelling	Grammar and Punctuation	Numeracy
Tasmania	497.9	461.0	485.2	488.7	477.3
Frazer					
Gould	376	399	434	425	404
McDonald					
Montana					

Note: Data was only available for Gould.

Table A5

The comparison of the Tasmanian Mean Scale Score with the average score of the four government schools in remote Tasmanian communities for Year 5 in 2015

	Reading	Persuasive Writing	Spelling	Grammar and Punctuation	Numeracy
Tasmania	493.6	468.5	482.8	489.2	483.1
Frazer	458	430	415	450	462
Gould	407	358	405	376	383
McDonald	391	360	430	397	409
Montana					

Note: Data was not available for Montana.

(ACARA, 2017a)

(ACARA, 2017b)

Appendix B

Past Teachers and Principals Questionnaire

Past Teachers and Principals

Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice The purpose of the study is to investigate the views of various stakeholders in attracting teachers to work in the four government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania as well as their views about retaining teachers once they are there. The study will specifically examine strategies and incentives used to attract and retain teachers to such communities. I have read and understood the attached Information Sheet for this study. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me in the Information Sheet. I understand that the study involves completing this survey, which will take no more than 30 minutes. I understand that participation involves no particular risk. I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the Launceston Campus of the University of Tasmania premises for five years from the publication of the study results, and will then be destroyed. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree that research data gathered from me for the study may be published provided that I cannot be identified as a participant. I understand that any information I supply to the researcher(s) will be used only for the purpose of the research. By choosing 'I Agree' I am confirming that I have read the Information Sheet and I am providing my consent to participate in the above-mentioned study.

- ❍ I Agree (1)
- ❍ I Disagree (2)

If I Disagree Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice Thank you for your assistance in this research. Your input is greatly appreciated. The words 'rural', 'remote' and 'isolated' are relative terms. For the purpose of this study the term 'remote' refers to schools on the West Coast of Tasmania: Rosebery, Zeehan, Strahan and Mountain Heights.

If you have had more than one appointment on the West Coast, please respond to this survey with answers based on your most recent appointment.

Q1 Please provide the following information: Age when you commenced teaching on the West Coast for your most recent appointment:

- ❍ 20-29 (1)
- ❍ 30-39 (2)
- ❍ 40-49 (3)
- ❍ 50+ (4)

Q2 Gender:

- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

Q3 Main teaching area whilst on the West Coast:

- ❍ Early Childhood (1)
- ❍ Primary (2)
- ❍ Secondary (3)
- ❍ Other (please specify) (4) _____

Q4 Position held for the longest time whilst on the West Coast:

- ❍ Principal (1)
- ❍ AP/AST (2)
- ❍ Classroom teacher (3)
- ❍ Other (4) _____

Q5 Most senior position held whilst on the West Coast:

- ❍ Principal (1)
- ❍ AP/AST (2)
- ❍ Classroom teacher (3)
- ❍ Other (4) _____

Display This Question:
If Main school position whilst on the West Coast: Principal Is Selected

Q5.1 Did you attend any meetings for the West Coast Futures Committee (formerly known as the West Coast Education Advisory Committee)?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Display This Question:
If Did you attend any meetings for the West Coast Education ... Yes Is Selected

Q5.2 What role do you believe the West Coast Futures Committee may/may not have in attracting teachers to the four West Coast government schools?

Display This Question:
If Did you attend any meetings for the West Coast Education ... Yes Is Selected

Q5.3 What role do you believe the West Coast Futures Committee may/may not have in retaining teachers to the four West Coast government schools?

Q6 On what basis were you employed whilst on the West Coast?
- ❍ Full time permanent (1)
- ❍ Part time permanent (2)
- ❍ Permanent Replacement Teacher (3)
- ❍ Temporary/short term contract (4)

Q7 Which best describes the highest teaching qualification you had whilst teaching on the West Coast?
- ❍ Diploma of Education (1)
- ❍ Diploma of Education following another degree (2)
- ❍ Bachelor of Education (3)
- ❍ Bachelor of Teaching (4)
- ❍ Master of Teaching (5)
- ❍ Master of Education (6)
- ❍ Doctoral degree (7)

Q8 When you were you last appointed to the West Coast how many years had you been teaching since graduation?
_____ Number of years teaching since graduation (1)

Q9 For how many consecutive years did you teach in a West Coast school in your last appointment? (This could include more than one school.)
_____ Consecutive years teaching in West Coast school (1)

Display This Question:
If For how many consecutive years did you teach in a West Coast school in your last appointment? (This could include more than one school.) Consecutive years teaching in West Coast school Is Greater Than or Equal to 3

Q9a After completing 3 (or more) years on the West Coast did you (please select the one most appropriate response)
- ❍ Transfer to a school in a larger population centre (1)
- ❍ Transfer to another remote area (2)
- ❍ Other (please specify) (3) _____
- ❍ Gain a promotion in a school in a larger population centre (4)
- ❍ Gain a promotion in another remote area (5)

Display This Question:
If For how many consecutive years did you teach in a West Coast school in your last appointment? (This could include more than one school.) Consecutive years teaching in West Coast school Is Greater Than 3

Q9b Which of the following were influential in your decision to continue teaching on the West Coast beyond the 3 year requirement? (Please select appropriate responses)

- ❑ Family connections on the West Coast (1)
- ❑ Spouse's/partner's employment situation (2)
- ❑ Enjoyment of lifestyle (3)
- ❑ Small class sizes (4)
- ❑ Isolation allowance (5)
- ❑ Rent subsidy (6)
- ❑ Affordable housing (7)
- ❑ Expense of relocating (8)
- ❑ Community spirit (9)
- ❑ Opportunity for promotion (10)
- ❑ Other (11) _____

Display This Question:
If For how many consecutive years did you teach in a West Coast school in your last appointment? (This could include more than one school.) Consecutive years teaching in West Coast school Is Less Than 3

Q9.1 After completing your service on the West Coast did you (please select the one most appropriate response)

- ❍ Transfer to a school in a larger population centre (1)
- ❍ Transfer to another remote area (2)
- ❍ Other (please specify) (3) _____
- ❍ Gain a promotion in a school in a larger population centre (4)
- ❍ Gain a promotion in another remote area (5)

Q10 Did you teach in a non-West Coast school prior to teaching on the West Coast?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Display This Question:
If Did you teach in a non-West Coast school prior to teachin... Yes Is Selected

Q10.1 The town or city in which my non-West Coast school was located was:

Q11 In regard to your most recent appointment, what was your family structure whilst teaching on the West Coast?

- ❍ Single without children (1)
- ❍ Single with children (including step-children) (2)
- ❍ Married or partnered without children (3)
- ❍ Married or partnered with children (including step-children) (4)

Q12 Did you attend primary school in Tasmania?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Display This Question:
If Did you attend primary school in Tasmania? Yes Is Selected

Q12.1 In what town or city did you complete most of your primary schooling?

Q13 Did you attend secondary school in Tasmania?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Display This Question:
If Did you attend secondary school in Tasmania? Yes Is Selected

Q13.1 In what town or city did you complete most of your secondary schooling?

Q14 Did you complete your teacher training in Tasmania?

- ❍ Yes (1)
- ❍ No (2)

Display This Question:
If Did you complete your teacher training in Tasmania? Yes Is Selected

Q14.1 In which town or city did you live while undertaking study towards your initial teaching qualification?

Display This Question:
If Did you complete your teacher training in Tasmania? Yes Is Selected

Q14.2 How effective do you feel your teacher training was in preparing you to teach in a West Coast school?

- ❍ Very Ineffective (1)
- ❍ Ineffective (2)
- ❍ Neither Effective nor Ineffective (3)
- ❍ Effective (4)
- ❍ Very Effective (5)

Display This Question:

If Did you complete your teacher training in Tasmania? Yes Is Selected

Q14.3 Please comment further in regard to the effectiveness of your initial teacher education in preparing you to teach in a West Coast school. (There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Q15 Which of the following were influential in your initial decision to teach in a West Coast school? (Please select ALL appropriate responses.)

- ❑ Family connections on the West Coast (1)
- ❑ Spouse's/partner's employment situation (2)
- ❑ Previously lived on the West Coast (3)
- ❑ Previously lived in a remote area (4)
- ❑ Lifestyle change (5)
- ❑ Small class sizes (6)
- ❑ I completed a professional experience on the West Coast during my teacher education (7)
- ❑ Department of Education placement (8)
- ❑ Permanency (9)
- ❑ Isolation allowance (10)
- ❑ Rent subsidy (11)
- ❑ Affordable housing (12)
- ❑ Job availability (13)
- ❑ Priority transfer after completing 3 years (14)
- ❑ Promotion (15)
- ❑ Other (16) _____

Views on attracting teachers to West Coast schools

Q16 How effective do you believe the following provisions would be in attracting teachers to West Coast schools?

	Very Ineffective (1)	Ineffective (2)	Neither Effective nor Ineffective (3)	Effective (4)	Very Effective (5)
Specific pre-service teacher education on teaching in a West Coast school (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Pre-service professional experience in a West Coast school (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Training scholarships with an obligation to work in a West Coast school for 5 years (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Reduction of HECS (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Special induction programs about living and working in remote communities (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
District allowance (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Isolation incentive (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Assistance with finding community services (e.g.child care and medical centres) (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Mentoring of beginning teachers by experienced colleagues (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Reduction of beginning teacher teaching load	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

(additional to the current BeTTR time) (10)					
Access to professional development (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Additional school staffing to cover relief for professional development (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Smaller classes (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Leave provisions including travel days (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Telephone/internet subsidy (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Financial assistance for relocating household furniture etc (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Access to quality housing (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Subsidised housing (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Free housing (19)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q17 Please add your own suggestions for attracting teachers to West Coast schools. (There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Views on retaining teachers in West Coast schools

Q18 How effective would the following be for retaining teachers in West Coast schools beyond the current 3 year requirement?

	Very Ineffective (1)	Ineffective (2)	Neither Effective nor Ineffective (3)	Effective (4)	Very Effective (5)
More accessible professional development (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Paid sabbatical/study leave entitlements after a designated period of service (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Extra leave provisions for personal business that include travel days (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Rental subsidies which increase with the length of service (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Guaranteed transfer to an area of choice after 4-5 years permanency (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Home loan subsidy (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Emergent leave provisions (e.g. 1 month paid leave after 3 years service to 6 months paid leave after 10 years) (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Cash payments	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

after a designated period of service (8)					
Enhanced promotion opportunities (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Living in a smaller community (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
A good place to raise children (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
A quiet lifestyle (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
A low crime rate (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Access to outdoor activities (e.g. bush walking) (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q19 Please add any comments you'd like about retaining teachers in West Coast schools. (There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Views of disincentives for teaching in West Coast schools

Q20 How likely do the following social factors act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school?

	Very Unlikely (1)	Unlikely (2)	Undecided (3)	Likely (4)	Very Likely (5)
Distance from major centres e.g. Burnie, Launceston, Hobart (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Isolation from family (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Isolation from friends (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Limited access to services (e.g. healthcare etc) (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Limited access to cultural activities (e.g. cinema, sports) (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Unreliable technology (e.g. phones, power, internet) (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Loss of privacy living in a small town (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Boredom (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Cost of living (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Uncertainty about socialisation into the community (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Access to fresh produce (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Raising children in a remote area	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

(12)					
Availability of childcare (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Access to post Year 10 education (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Access to TAFE (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Access to university (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Employment opportunities for non-teaching spouse/partner (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Availability of quality housing (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lack of public transport within the West Coast area (19)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lack of public transport in or out of the West Coast (20)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Negative images and publicity regarding living on the West Coast (21)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q21 Please add any comments you'd like about social factors that act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school. (There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Q22 How likely do the following professional issues act as disincentives to teaching in a West Coast school?

	Very Unlikely (1)	Unlikely (2)	Undecided (3)	Likely (4)	Very Likely (5)
Lack of access to experienced teachers (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lack of access to colleagues with the same subject expertise (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lack of professional development opportunities (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
A sense of professional isolation (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Limited collegial support networks (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Cost of accessing professional development (inc. accommodation and travel) (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Time to access professional development (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Availability of relief to attend professional development (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Multi-aged and multi-grade classes (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Expectation of teaching outside subject area (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Workload (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Access to resources (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Availability of relief for leave (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Limited promotional opportunities (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lack of program continuity due to high staff turnover (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Impermanence of support networks, friendship circles and personal relationships (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Inexperienced senior staff (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Poor student behaviour (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q23 Please add any comments you'd like about professional issues that act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school.

You are not required to provide any details which could be used to identify you. However, if you are happy to be contacted to participate in an interview about the issues raised in this survey, please contact Janet Mackenzie by email: Janet.Mackenzie@utas.edu.au with your email address or phone number to indicate your willingness.

Thank you for your participation in this survey. Your responses will be invaluable for devising strategies and suggestions for attracting and retaining teachers to the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania.

Appendix C

2015 Teachers and Principals Questionnaire

Current Teachers and Principals on the West Coast

Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice

The purpose of the study is to investigate the views of various stakeholders in attracting teachers to work in the four government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania as well as their views about retaining teachers once they are there. The study will specifically examine strategies and incentives used to attract and retain teachers to such communities.

1. I have read and understood the attached Information Sheet for this study.
2. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me in the Information Sheet.
3. I understand that the study involves completing this survey which will take no more than 30 minutes.
4. I understand that participation involves no particular risk.
5. I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the Launceston Campus of the University of Tasmania premises for five years from the publication of the study results, and will then be destroyed.
6. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.
7. I agree that research data gathered from me for the study may be published provided that I cannot be identified as a participant.
8. I understand that any information I supply to the researcher(s) will be used only for the purpose of the research.

By choosing 'I agree' I am confirming that I have read the Information Sheet and I am providing my consent to particpate in the above mentioned study.

I agree. ○ I disagree ○

Current Teachers on the West Coast

Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania:

Recognising responsibility to improve current practice

Thank you for your assistance in this research. Your input is greatly appreciated.

The words 'rural', 'remote' and 'isolated' are relative terms. For the purpose of this study the term 'remote' refers to schools on the West Coast of Tasmania: Rosebery, Zeehan, Strahan and Mountain Heights.

Participant Profile 1

Q1.
Please provide the following information:

Age:

○ 20-29 ○ 30-39 ○ 40-49 ○ 50+

Q2. Gender:

○ Male ○ Female

Q3. Current teaching area:

○ Early Childhood ○ Primary ○ Secondary

○ Other *(please specify)*

Q4. Current school position:

○ Principal ○ AST/AP ○ Classroom teacher ○ Other

West Coast Futures Committee

Q4.1. Have you attended meetings of the West Coast Futures Committee (formerly known as the West Coast Education Advisory Committee)?

Yes	No
○	○

Q4.1a. What is the frequency of your attendance to the meetings? (Sometimes represents attendance at half of the meetings.)

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	All of the Time
○	○	○	○	○

Q4.2. What role do you believe the West Coast Futures Committee may/may not have in attracting teachers to the four West Coast government schools?

Q4.3. What role do you believe the West Coast Futures Committee may/may not have in retaining teachers to the four West Coast government schools?

Participant Profile 2

Q5. On what basis are you employed?

- ○ Full time permanent
- ○ Part time permanent
- ○ Permanent Replacement Teacher
- ○ Temporary/short term contract
- ○ Other (Please state)

Q6. Which best describes your highest teaching qualification?

- ○ Diploma of Education
- ○ Diploma of Education following another degree
- ○ Bachelor of Education
- ○ Bachelor of Teaching
- ○ Master of Teaching
- ○ Master of Education
- ○ Doctoral degree

Q7. For how many years have you been teaching since graduation?

	0	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40
Number of years teaching since graduation									

Q8. For how many consecutive years have you been teaching in a West Coast school in your current appointment? (This could include more than one school.)

0	5	10	15	20

Consecutive years teaching in West Coast school

Longer than 3 years

Q8.1. Which of the following were influential in your decision to continue teaching on the West Coast beyond 3 years? *(Please select appropriate responses)*

- ☐ Family connections on the West Coast
- ☐ Spouse's/partner's employment situation
- ☐ Enjoyment of lifestyle
- ☐ Small class sizes
- ☐ Isolation allowance
- ☐ Rent subsidy
- ☐ Affordable housing
- ☐ Expense of relocating
- ☐ Community spirit
- ☐ Opportunity for promotion
- ☐ Other

Completing 3 year service

Q9. Are you currently completing a minimum 3 year service having gained permanency?

Yes ○ No ○

Q9.1. After completing my minimum period of service I intend to *(please select the ONE most appropriate response)*

- ○ Stay where I am
- ○ Apply for a transfer to another school on the West Coast
- ○ Apply for a transfer to another remote area
- ○ Apply for a transfer to a school in a larger population centre
- ○ Apply for a promotion in my current school
- ○ Apply for a promotion in another school on the West Coast
- ○ Apply for a promotion in another remote area
- ○ Apply for a promotion in a school in a larger population centre
- ○ Leave teaching

○ Other (please specify)

Teaching position before West Coast

Q10. Did you teach in a non-West Coast school prior to your current posting?

Yes ○ No ○

Q10.1.
The town or city in which my non-West Coast school was located was:

Continuation on the West Coast

Q11. At most, how many more years can you see yourself working in a West Coast school?

0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20

Future years on the West Coast

Participant Profile Part 3

Q12. Do you have a current driver's licence?

Yes ○ No ○

Q13. What is your current family structure?

- ○ Single without children
- ○ Single with children (including step-children)
- ○ Married or partnered without children
- ○ Married or partnered with children (including step-children)
- ○ Other (Please state)

Own school experience

Q14. Did you attend primary school in Tasmania?

Yes ○ No ○

Q14.1. In what town or city did you complete most of your primary schooling?

Q15. Did you attend secondary school in Tasmania?

Yes ○ No ○

Q15.1. In what town or city did you complete most of your secondary schooling?

Seeking Tasmanian trained teachers

Q16. Did you complete your teacher education in Tasmania?

Yes ○ No ○

Tasmanian trained teachers

Q16.1. In which town or city did you live while undertaking study towards your initial teaching qualification?

Q16.2. How effective do you feel your initial teacher education was in preparing you to teach in a West Coast school?

- ○ Very Ineffective
- ○ Ineffective
- ○ Neither Effective nor Ineffective
- ○ Effective
- ○ Very Effective

Q16.3. Please comment further in regard to the effectiveness of your initial teacher education in preparing you to teach in a West Coast school.
(There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Initial Influences

Q17. Which of the following were influential in your initial decision to teach in a

West Coast school? *(Please select ALL appropriate responses.)*

- ☐ Family connections on the West Coast
- ☐ Spouse's/partner's employment situation
- ☐ Previously lived on the West Coast
- ☐ Previously lived in a remote area
- ☐ Lifestyle change
- ☐ Small class sizes
- ☐ I completed a professional experience on the West Coast during my teacher education
- ☐ Department of Education placement
- ☐ Permanency
- ☐ Isolation allowance
- ☐ Rent subsidy
- ☐ Affordable housing
- ☐ Job availability
- ☐ Priority transfer after completing 3 years
- ☐ Promotion
- ☐ Other

Views to attract

.

Views on attracting teachers to West Coast schools

Q18. How effective do you believe the following provisions would be in **attracting** teachers to West Coast schools?

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Specific pre-service teacher education on teaching in a West Coast school	○	○	○	○	○
Pre-service professional experience in a West Coast school	○	○	○	○	○
Training					

scholarships with an obligation to work in a West Coast school for 5 years	○	○	○	○	○
Reduction of HECS	○	○	○	○	○
Special induction programs about living and working in remote communities	○	○	○	○	○
District allowance	○	○	○	○	○
Isolation incentive	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Assistance with finding community services (e.g.child care and medical centres)	○	○	○	○	○
Mentoring of beginning teachers by experienced colleagues	○	○	○	○	○
Reduction of beginning teacher teaching load (additional to the current BeTTR time)	○	○	○	○	○
Access to professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Additional school staffing to cover relief for professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Smaller classes	○	○	○	○	○
Leave provisions including travel days	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Telephone/internet subsidy	○	○	○	○	○
Financial assistance for relocating household furniture etc	○	○	○	○	○
Access to quality housing	○	○	○	○	○
Subsidised housing	○	○	○	○	○
Free housing	○	○	○	○	○

Q19.
Please add your own suggestions for **attracting** teachers to West Coast schools. (There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Views on retaining

. **Views on retaining teachers in West Coast schools**

Q20. How effective would the following be for **retaining** teachers in West Coast schools beyond the current 3 year requirement of gaining a permanent position?

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
More accessible professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Paid sabbatical/study leave entitlements after a designated	○	○	○	○	○

period of service					
Extra leave provisions for personal business that include travel days	○	○	○	○	○
Rental subsidies that increase with the length of service	○	○	○	○	○
Guaranteed transfer to an area of choice after 4-5 years permanency	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Home loan subsidy	○	○	○	○	○
Emergent leave provisions (e.g. 1 month paid leave after 3 years service to 6 months paid leave after 10 years)	○	○	○	○	○
Cash payments after a designated period of service	○	○	○	○	○
Enhanced promotion opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Living in a smaller community	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
A good place to raise children	○	○	○	○	○
A quiet lifestyle	○	○	○	○	○
A low crime rate	○	○	○	○	○

Access to outdoor activities (e.g. bush walking)	○	○	○	○	○

Q21.
Please add any comments you'd like about **retaining** teachers in West Coast schools.
(There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Views on disincentives

. Views of disincentives for teaching in West Coast schools

Q22. How likely is it that the following **social factors** act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school?

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Distance from major centres e.g. Burnie, Launceston, Hobart	○	○	○	○	○
Isolation from family	○	○	○	○	○
Isolation from friends	○	○	○	○	○
Limited access to services (e.g. healthcare etc)	○	○	○	○	○
Limited access to cultural activities (e.g. cinema, sports)	○	○	○	○	○
Unreliable technology (e.g. phones, power, internet)	○	○	○	○	○
	Very				Very

	Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Likely
Loss of privacy living in a small town	○	○	○	○	○
Uncertainty about socialisation into the community	○	○	○	○	○
Boredom	○	○	○	○	○
Cost of living	○	○	○	○	○
Access to fresh produce	○	○	○	○	○
Raising children in a remote area	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Availability of childcare	○	○	○	○	○
Access to post Year 10 education	○	○	○	○	○
Access to TAFE	○	○	○	○	○
Access to university	○	○	○	○	○
Employment opportunities for non-teaching spouse/partner	○	○	○	○	○
Availability of quality housing	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Lack of public transport within the West Coast area	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of public transport in or out of the West Coast	○	○	○	○	○
Negative images and publicity regarding living on	○	○	○	○	○

the West Coast

Q23.
Please add any comments you'd like about **social factors** that are likely to act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school.
(There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Q24. How likely is it that the following **professional issues** act as disincentives to teaching in a West Coast school?

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Lack of access to experienced teachers	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of access to colleagues with the same subject expertise	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of professional development opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
A sense of professional isolation	○	○	○	○	○
Limited collegial support networks	○	○	○	○	○
Cost of accessing professional development (inc. accommodation and travel)	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Time to access professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Availability of relief to attend	○	○	○	○	○

professional development					
Multi-aged and multi-grade classes	○	○	○	○	○
Expectation of teaching outside subject area	○	○	○	○	○
Workload	○	○	○	○	○
Access to resources	○	○	○	○	○
	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Availability of relief for leave	○	○	○	○	○
Limited promotional opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of program continuity due to high staff turnover	○	○	○	○	○
Impermanence of support networks, friendship circles and personal relationships	○	○	○	○	○
Inexperienced senior staff	○	○	○	○	○
Poor student behaviour	○	○	○	○	○

Q25. Please add any comments you'd like about **professional issues** that are likely to act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school.

End of Survey

. You are not **required** to provide any details which could be used to identify you.

However, if you are happy to be contacted to participate in an interview about the

issues raised in this survey, please contact Janet Mackenzie by email: Janet.Mackenzie@utas.edu.au with your email address or phone number to indicate your willingness.

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Thank you for your participation in this survey.

Your responses will be invaluable for devising strategies and suggestions for attracting and retaining teachers to the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania.

Appendix D

University of Tasmania Pre-Service Teacher Educator Questionnaire

UTas Educators

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Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice

The purpose of the study is to investigate the views of various stakeholders in attracting teachers to work in the four government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania as well as their views about retaining teachers once they are there. The study will specifically examine strategies and incentives used to attract and retain teachers to such communities.

1. I have read and understood the attached Information Sheet for this study.
2. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me in the Information Sheet.
3. I understand that the study involves completing this survey which will take no more than 30 minutes.
4. I understand that participation involves no particular risk.
5. I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the Launceston Campus of the University of Tasmania premises for five years from the publication of the study results, and will then be destroyed.
6. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.
7. I agree that research data gathered from me for the study may be published provided that I cannot be identified as a participant.
8. I understand that any information I supply to the researcher(s) will be used only for the purpose of the research.

By choosing 'I agree' I am confirming that I have read the Information Sheet and I am providing my consent to particpate in the above mentioned study.

I agree ○ I disagree ○

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Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice

Thank you for your assistance in this research. Your input is greatly appreciated.

The words 'rural', 'remote' and 'isolated' are relative terms. For the purpose of this study the term 'remote' refers to schools on the West Coast of Tasmania: Rosebery, Zeehan, Strahan and Mountain Heights.

Participant Profile

Q1.
Please provide the following information:

Age:

- ○ 23 - 30
- ○ 31 - 39
- ○ 40 - 49
- ○ 50 - 59
- ○ 60+

Q2. Gender:

○ Male ○ Female

Pre-Service Teacher Educator Roles

Q3. What role do you have in pre-service teacher education?

- ○ Course Co-ordinator
- ○ Unit Co-ordinator
- ○ Lecturer
- ○ Sessional Tutor
- ○ Practitioner
- ○ I don't have a role

Q4. What is your title?

- ○ Professor
- ○ Associate Professor
- ○ Doctor
- ○ Other

Q5. Which pre-teacher education course(s) are you currently involved with?

(Mark all applicable courses.)

- ☐ Bachelor of Education (Early Childhood)
- ☐ Bachelor of Education (Primary)
- ☐ Bachelor of Education (Specialisations)
- ☐ Bachelor of Education (Applied Learning)
- ☐ Master of Teaching (Primary)
- ☐ Master of Teaching (Secondary)
- ☐ Other

Q6. On which campus are you based?

- ○ Cradle Coast campus in Burnie
- ○ Newnham campus in Launceston
- ○ Sandy Bay campus in Hobart

Q7. In the pre-teacher education course(s) with which you are involved, are any of the following topics included?

	No	Yes in an 'elective' unit	Yes in an 'core' unit	Yes, in both an 'elective' unit and a 'core' unit
Strategies and teaching methods for teaching multi-grade classes	○	○	○	○
Remote and isolated Tasmanian communities	○	○	○	○
Opportunity for whole school involvement in a remote school	○	○	○	○
Cultural adjustment related to living AND working in a remote community	○	○	○	○
Specific issues teachers might encounter in a remote school	○	○	○	○

Pre-service teacher placements

. Professional Experience Placements

Q8. Have you had a direct responsibility for placing pre-service teachers for Professional Experience in the last 4 years?

Yes ○ No ○

Q8.1. What was the total number of individual teaching experience placements organised by the University of Tasmania in the following years? (Only respond to the years for which you had a responsibility for placements.)

	0	50	100	150	200	250	300	350	400	450	500
2010											
2011											
2012											
2013											
2014											

Q8.2. How many of those placements were in a government school on the West Coast of Tasmania?

	0	5	10	15
2010				
2011				
2012				
2013				
2014				

Q8.3. What are the main factors that affect the availability of a Professional Experience placement in a government school on the West Coast?

Q8.4. In a 4 year degree or in a graduate program in which year(s) can a Professional Experience placement occur in a West Coast government school?

Q8.5. How many pre-service teachers utilised the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools (PEIRS) Program in each of these years;

	0	5	10	15
2010				
2011				
2012				
2013				
2014				

Q8.6. How is accommodation for pre-service teachers who accept a placement in a government school on the West Coast of Tasmania arranged and managed? Please provide as much detail as you can.

PEIRS Program

Q9. In what ways have you promoted the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools (PEIRS) Program?

Q10. In your opinion which of the following Professional Experiences should be included in the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools program? (You may select more than one.)

- [ ] Professional Experience 1
- [ ] Professional Experience 2
- [ ] Professional Experience 3
- [ ] Professional Experience 4

Q10.1. Explain your choice

Pre-service Teacher preparation

Q11. Describe any preparation of pre-service teachers for teaching in a government school on the West Coast of Tasmania including any selection processes for such a placement? Please provide as much detail as you can.

Q12. How are supervision and support provided by the University of Tasmania to pre-service teachers during their West Coast government school Professional Experience and how frequently is it provided? Please provide as much detail as you can.

Q13. Is debriefing or follow-up provided for pre-service teaching followng a placement in a government school on the West Coast of Tasmania?

Yes	No	I don't know
○	○	○

Q13.1. What is the nature of the debriefing or follow-up? Please provide as much detail as you can.

Q14. What are the main cost pressures for UTas of placing pre-service teachers in a government school on the West Coast of Tasmania? Please provide as much detail as you can.

Q15. How important do you believe the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania are to UTas?

Not at all Important	Very Unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Very Important	Extremely Important
○	○	○	○	○

Q15.1. Please explain your response to the level of importance the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania are to UTas. Please provide as much detail as you can.

Q16. How effective do you believe UTas has been in ensuring that pre-service teachers can access a placement in a government school on the West Coast of Tasmania?

Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
○	○	○	○	○

Q16.1. Please explain your response to the effectiveness of UTas in ensuring that pre-service teachers can access a placement in a government school on the West Coast of Tasmania. Please provide as much detail as you can.

Q17. Please provide any other information that you would like to about the role of the University of Tasmania in attracting teachers to the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania.

End of Survey

. You are not **required** to provide any details which could be used to identify you.

However, if you are happy to be contacted to participate in an interview about the issues raised in this survey, please contact Janet Mackenzie by email: Janet.Mackenzie@utas.edu.au with your name and email address and indicate your willingness.

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Thank you for your participation in this survey.

Your responses will be invaluable for devising strategies and suggestions for attracting and retaining teachers to the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania.

Appendix E

University of Tasmania Final Year Pre-Service Teacher Questionnaire

Preservice Teachers

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Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice

The purpose of the study is to investigate the views of various stakeholders in attracting teachers to work in the four government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania as well as their views about retaining teachers once they are there. The study will specifically examine strategies and incentives used to attract and retain teachers to such communities.

1. I have read and understood the attached Information Sheet for this study.
2. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me in the Information Sheet.
3. I understand that the study involves completing this survey which will take no more than 30 minutes.
4. I understand that participation involves no particular risk.
5. I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the Launceston Campus of the University of Tasmania premises for five years from the publication of the study results, and will then be destroyed.
6. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.
7. I agree that research data gathered from me for the study may be published provided that I cannot be identified as a participant.
8. I understand that any information I supply to the researcher(s) will be used only for the purpose of the research.

By choosing 'I agree' I am confirming that I have read the Information Sheet and I am providing my consent to particpate in the above mentioned study.

I agree ○ I disagree ○

.

Survey on attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice

Thank you for your assistance in this research. Your input is greatly appreciated.

The words 'rural', 'remote' and 'isolated' are relative terms. For the purpose of this study the term 'remote' refers to schools on the West Coast of Tasmania: Rosebery, Zeehan, Strahan and Mountain Heights.

Participant Profile

Q1.
Please provide the following information:

Age:

- ○ < 20
- ○ 20 - 29
- ○ 30 - 39
- ○ 40-49
- ○ 50+

Q2. Gender:

○ Male ○ Female

Own school experience

Q3. Did you attend primary school in Tasmania?

Yes ○ No ○

Q3.1. In what town or city did you complete most of your primary schooling?

Q4. Did you attend secondary school in Tasmania?

Yes ○ No ○

Q4.1. In what town or city did you complete most of your secondary schooling?

Pre-Service Teacher Program

Q5. In which course are you currently enrolled?

- ○ Bachelor of Education (Early Childhood)
- ○ Bachelor of Education (Primary)
- ○ Bachelor of Education (Specialisations)
- ○ Bachelor of Education (Applied Learning)
- ○ Master of Teaching (Primary)
- ○ Master of Teaching (Secondary)
- ○ Other

Q6. Which option best describes the access to your course?

Mostly face-to-face ○ Mostly online ○

Q6.1. At which campus are you completing most of your pre-service teacher education?

- ○ Cradle Coast campus in Burnie
- ○ Newnham campus in Launceston
- ○ Sandy Bay campus in Hobart

Q7. In the units you have studied in your teacher education course so far, have you learned about:

	No, I have not	Yes in an 'elective' unit	Yes in a 'core' unit	Yes, in both an 'elective' unit and a 'core' unit	I'm not sure
Strategies and teaching methods for teaching multi-grade classes	○	○	○	○	○
Remote and isolated Tasmanian communities	○	○	○	○	○
Expectation and opportunity for community involvement in a remote school	○	○	○	○	○
Cultural adjustment related to living					

AND working in a remote community	○	○	○	○	○
Specific issues teachers might encounter in a remote school	○	○	○	○	○

Professional Experience

Q8. Which Professional Experience (PE) placement have you completed most recently?

- ○ I have not completed a PE placement
- ○ PE1
- ○ PE2
- ○ PE3
- ○ PE4

Q9. How important are the following considerations to you when you request a school for a Professional Experience placement?

	Very Unimportant	Somewhat unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Family commitments	○	○	○	○	○
Work commitments	○	○	○	○	○
Distance (or travel time) from my home to the school	○	○	○	○	○
A friend/peer has requested to be placed in the same school	○	○	○	○	○
The school system (government, Catholic, independent)	○	○	○	○	○

Neither

	Very Unimportant	Somewhat unimportant	Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Very Important
The type of school (urban or remote)	○	○	○	○	○
Familiarity with the school or locality	○	○	○	○	○
Possible employment in that school (or school type)	○	○	○	○	○
Achieving a variety of Professional Learning Experiences	○	○	○	○	○
Costs associated with travel	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Unimportant	Somewhat unimportant	Neither Important nor Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Very Important
Costs associated with accommodation	○	○	○	○	○
The availability of accommodation (if needed)	○	○	○	○	○
Availability of public transport	○	○	○	○	○

Q10. Are you aware that if you accept a Professional Experience 1 (PE1) placement in a remote school that you will have the option to return to the school for your PE4?

Yes, I am	I wasn't, but I am now
○	○

Q11. How likely are you to apply to undertake your final Professional Experience placement in one of the four government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania

(Strahan Primary School, Zeehan Primary School, Mountain Heights School or Rosebery District High School)?

Definitely won't apply	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Will definitely apply	Have applied
○	○	○	○	○	○

PEIRS Program

Q12. Are you aware of the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools (PEIRS) Program and what it provides?

Yes	No
○	○

Q12.1. Do you think the PEIRS Program provides enough assistance with travel and accommodation related to Professional Experience for final year students? Should this program be extended to include other Professional Experiences?

Yes	No
○	○

Q12.2. Which of the following Professional Experiences should also be covered by the PEIRS program? (You may select more than one.)

- ☐ Professional Experience 1
- ☐ Professional Experience 2
- ☐ Professional Experience 3
- ☐ Please explain your choice

Q13. Would you have been interested to know about PEIRS earlier?

Yes	No
○	○

Q13.1. In which year of study would you have preferred to know about PEIRS?

First year of study	Second year of study	Third year of study	Other
○	○	○	○

Views to attract

.

Views on attracting teachers to West Coast schools

Q14. How effective do you believe the following provisions would be in **attracting teachers** to West Coast schools?

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Specific pre-service teacher education on teaching in a West Coast school	○	○	○	○	○
Pre-service professional experience in a West Coast school	○	○	○	○	○
Bonded scholarships with an obligation to work in a West Coast school for 5 years	○	○	○	○	○
Reduction of HECS	○	○	○	○	○
Special induction programs about living and working in remote communities	○	○	○	○	○
District allowance	○	○	○	○	○
Isolation incentive	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Assistance with finding community services (e.g.child care and medical centres)	○	○	○	○	○
Mentoring of beginning teachers by experienced colleagues	○	○	○	○	○
Reduction of beginning teacher teaching load (additional to the current BeTTR time)	○	○	○	○	○

Access to professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Additional school staffing to cover relief for professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Smaller classes	○	○	○	○	○
Leave provisions including travel days	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Telephone/internet subsidy	○	○	○	○	○
Financial assistance for relocating household furniture etc	○	○	○	○	○
Access to quality housing	○	○	○	○	○
Subsidised housing	○	○	○	○	○
Free housing	○	○	○	○	○

Q15.

Please add your own suggestions for **attracting teachers** to West Coast schools. (There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Views on retaining

. **Views on retaining teachers in West Coast schools**

Q16. How effective do you believe the following would be for **retaining teachers** in West Coast schools beyond the current 3 year requirement?

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
More accessible professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Paid sabbatical/study leave entitlements after a designated period of service	○	○	○	○	○
Extra leave provisions for personal business that include travel days	○	○	○	○	○
Rental subsidies which increase with the length of service	○	○	○	○	○
Guaranteed transfer to an area of choice after 4-5 years permanency	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
Home loan subsidy	○	○	○	○	○
Emergent leave provisions (e.g. 1 month paid leave after 3 years service to 6 months paid leave after 10 years)	○	○	○	○	○
Cash payments after a designated period of service	○	○	○	○	○
Enhanced promotion	○	○	○	○	○

opportunities					
Living in a smaller community	○	○	○	○	○
	Very Ineffective	Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Effective	Very Effective
A good place to raise children	○	○	○	○	○
A quiet lifestyle	○	○	○	○	○
A low crime rate	○	○	○	○	○
Access to outdoor activities (e.g. bush walking)	○	○	○	○	○

Q17. Please add any comments you'd like about **retaining** teachers in West Coast schools.
(There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Views on disincentives

. **Views of disincentives for teaching in West Coast schools**

Q18. How likely do the following **social factors** act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school?

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Distance from major centres e.g. Burnie, Launceston, Hobart	○	○	○	○	○
Isolation from family	○	○	○	○	○
Isolation from friends	○	○	○	○	○

Limited access to services (e.g. healthcare etc)	○	○	○	○	○
Limited access to cultural activities (e.g. cinema, sports)	○	○	○	○	○
Unreliable technology (e.g. phones, power, internet)	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Loss of privacy living in a small town	○	○	○	○	○
Uncertainty about socialisation into the community	○	○	○	○	○
Boredom	○	○	○	○	○
Cost of living	○	○	○	○	○
Access to fresh produce	○	○	○	○	○
Raising children in a remote area	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Availability of childcare	○	○	○	○	○
Access to post Year 10 education	○	○	○	○	○
Access to TAFE	○	○	○	○	○
Access to university	○	○	○	○	○
Employment opportunities for non-teaching spouse/partner	○	○	○	○	○
Availability of quality housing	○	○	○	○	○

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Lack of public transport within the West Coast area	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of public transport in or out of the West Coast	○	○	○	○	○
Negative images and publicity regarding living on the West Coast	○	○	○	○	○

Q19.
Please add any comments you'd like about **social factors** that act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school.
(There will be more opportunities for other comments further on in the survey.)

Q20. How likely do the following **professional issues** act as disincentives to teaching in a West Coast school?

	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Lack of access to experienced teachers	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of access to colleagues with same subject expertise	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of professional development opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
A sense of professional isolation	○	○	○	○	○
Limited collegial support networks	○	○	○	○	○

Cost of accessing professional development (inc. accommodation and travel)	○	○	○	○	○
	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Time to access professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Availability of relief to attend professional development	○	○	○	○	○
Multi-aged and multi-grade classes	○	○	○	○	○
Expectation of teaching outside subject area	○	○	○	○	○
Workload	○	○	○	○	○
Access to resources	○	○	○	○	○
	Very Unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
Availability of relief for leave	○	○	○	○	○
Limited promotional opportunities	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of program continuity due to high staff turnover	○	○	○	○	○
Impermanence of support networks, friendship circles and personal relationships	○	○	○	○	○
Inexperienced senior staff	○	○	○	○	○
Poor student behaviour	○	○	○	○	○

Q21. Please add any comments you'd like about **professional issues** that act as disincentives for teaching in a West Coast school.

End of Survey

. You are not **required** to provide any details which could be used to identify you.

However, if you are happy to be contacted to participate in an interview about the issues raised in this survey, please contact Janet Mackenzie by email: Janet.Mackenzie@utas.edu.au with your email address or phone number to indicate your willingness.

.

Thank you for your participation in this survey.

Your responses will be invaluable for devising strategies and suggestions for attracting and retaining teachers to the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania.

Appendix F

Questions for Community Interviews

Questions for West Coast Schools, School Associations

Deterring

1. What factors do you think may deter teachers from accepting a teaching position on the West Coast?

Attracting

2. Why do you think teachers come to the West Coast to teach?
3. How might the West Coast community promote the West Coast of Tasmania as a desirable place for teachers to work and live?
4. What are your thoughts about the community's role in attracting teachers to teach in your community?
5. How could that role be enhanced?

Welcoming

6. How does this community assist new teachers when they arrive?
7. Do you have any ideas of other ways to support new teachers settling into the community?
8. Would you be willing to participate in activities to support new teachers?
9. What activities has the community provided to support new teachers?
10. Have new teachers participated in these activities?
11. Do you feel that the community has benefited from being involved in supporting new teachers?

(Kennedy, Young, & Dorman, 2009)

Retaining

12. What do you believe the greatest personal challenges are that new teachers may experience when they arrive in your community?
13. What are your thoughts about the needs of new teachers arriving in your community?
14. What do you believe the experience is like for new teachers living in your community?

15. Do you believe new teachers want to be supported by the local community when they arrive in a new school? In what ways?
16. Do you have any suggestions as to how this community might encourage teachers to remain here longer than the Department of Education's required three years?
17. Why do you think some teachers remain longer than three years?

Other questions specific to my research;

18. How do you feel about the current requirement for teachers to remain in a West Coast school for three years?
19. What are your thoughts about the community's role in retaining teachers beyond the current three-year requirement?

20. Do you have any further comments you would like to add in regard to attracting and retaining teachers to the government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania?

Appendix G
Questions for the Non-School Based Employee Interview

Questions for Non-School Based Employee

The following questions have been generated from the 2011 National Framework for Rural and Remote Education (Ministerial Council on Education, 2011).

1. What do you see as the major issue in relation to staffing government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?
2. Traditionally the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities have been staffed predominantly by beginning teachers and first-time principals. From your point of view what role does or might the Department of Education play in attracting experienced teachers to the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?
3. What role does or might the Department of Education play in attracting experienced principals to the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?
4. What role do you see for the Department of Education in retaining teachers (beyond the current three-year requirement) in the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?
5. What role do you see for the Department of Education in retaining experienced principals in the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?
6. How might the Department of Education promote the remote Tasmanian communities as a desirable place for teachers to work and live?
7. What are the current financial and other incentives being offered to attract teachers and principals to the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

   7a. In what ways are these promoted?

8. What are the current financial and other incentives being offered to retain teachers and principals to the government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

   8a. In what ways are these promoted?
9. What do you see as the potential for incentives to include family members such as spouses (or partners) and children in order to attract and retain experienced teachers and principals?
10. What incentives are there currently to encourage beginning teachers to work beyond the current three-year requirement in remote Tasmanian communities?
11. What do you believe the greatest professional challenges are that a teacher may experience in their first year in a remote school?
12. How might teachers be assisted to meet these changes?
13. What do you believe the greatest personal and social challenges are that a teacher may experience in their first year in a remote community?
14. In what ways might teachers be assisted to meet these changes?
15. What are you aware of that is being provided during teacher education to prepare teachers for employment in isolated communities such as the four communities?
16. In what ways do you think initial teacher education might better prepare teachers for employment in isolated communities such as the four communities?
17. What is currently being provided by the Department of Education to support beginning teachers in isolated communities such as the four communities?
18. In what ways do you think the Department of Education might better support beginning teachers in isolated communities such as the four communities?
19. What is currently being provided by the Department of Education to ensure teachers and principals in isolated communities like the four communities have access to ongoing Professional Learning opportunities?

20. In what ways do you think the Department of Education might contribute to ensuring teachers and principals in isolated communities like the four communities have access to ongoing Professional Learning opportunities?

Appendix H
Questions for Teacher Interviews

Interview Questions for Current and Past Principals and Teachers

1. What prompted you to accept a position in a remote school?

2. Tell me about your experience of working in remote Tasmanian communities.

3. What if anything, might be undertaken to enhance the experience of working in remote Tasmanian communities?

4. Tell me about your experience of living in remote Tasmanian communities.

5. What if anything, might be undertaken to enhance the experience of living in remote Tasmanian communities?

6. What other information are you willing to provide about your time in remote Tasmanian communities that you feel is relevant to this research?

For Past Principals and Teachers

1. Why did you leave the remote communities?

Appendix I
Questions for University of Tasmania Pre-Service Teacher Educator Interviews

Interview Questions for University of Tasmania Pre-Service Teacher Educators

1. What role do you have in University of Tasmania?

2. What role do you believe the University of Tasmania pre-service educators have in encouraging pre-service teachers to undertake a practicum in remote Tasmanian communities?

3. Within your role, in what ways have you promoted the four communities as a place to undertake a practicum?

4. To your knowledge, what levels of communication are there between the University of Tasmania and the four government schools in remote Tasmanian communities?

Appendix J
Questions for University of Tasmania Final Year Pre-Service Teacher Interview

Interview Questions for Final Year Pre-Service Teachers

1. What are your perceptions about working in a remote school?

2. What aspects of your pre-service training has supported or challenged these perceptions of working in a remote school?

3. What are your perceptions about living in a remote community?

4. What aspects of your pre-service training has supported or challenged these perceptions of living in a remote community?

5. What would encourage you to accept a future teaching position in a remote school?

6. What would discourage you from accepting a future teaching position in a remote school?

Appendix K

Department of Education (Tasmania) Approval for Research Letter

Department of Education
EDUCATIONAL PERFORMANCE SERVICES

2/73 Murray Street, Hobart
GPO Box 169, Hobart, TAS 7001 Australia

Tasmania

File: 2014 - 23

6 August 2014
Ms Janet Mackenzie
6 Adams Street
Zeehan TAS 7469

Dear Janet

Attracting and retaining teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising responsibility to improve current practice

I have been advised by the Educational Performance Research Committee that the above research study adheres to the guidelines established and that there is no objection to the study proceeding.

Please note that you have been given permission to proceed at a general level, and not at individual level. You will still need to seek permission from the opotentail participants to be involved in the study. Please provide them with the File number or a copy of this letter when approaching them for assistance.

A copy of your final report should be forwarded to Educational Performance Services, Department of Education, GPO Box 169, Hobart, 7001 at your earliest convenience and within six months of the completion of the research phase.

If you have further questions or concerns please contact Fiona Atkins on (03) 6165

Yours sincerely

Katrina Beams, Assistant Director
(Educational Performance Services)

Appendix L

Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Approval for Research Letter

Social Science Ethics Officer
Private Bag 01 Hobart
Tasmania 7001 Australia
Tel: (03) 6226 2763
Fax: (03) 6226 7148
Katherine.Shaw@utas.edu.au

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (TASMANIA) NETWORK

30 May 2014

Professor Kim Beswick
Faculty of Education
Locked Bag 1307

Student Researcher: Janet Mackenzie

Sent via email

Dear Professor Beswick

Re: MINIMAL RISK ETHICS APPLICATION APPROVAL
Ethics Ref: **H0014097 - Attracting and Retaining Teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising Responsibility to Improve Current Practice**

We are pleased to advise that acting on a mandate from the Tasmania Social Sciences HREC, the Chair of the committee considered and approved the above project on 23 May 2014.

This approval constitutes ethical clearance by the Tasmania Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee. The decision and authority to commence the associated research may be dependent on factors beyond the remit of the ethics review process. For example, your research may need ethics clearance from other organisations or review by your research governance coordinator or Head of Department. It is your responsibility to find out if the approval of other bodies or authorities is required. It is recommended that the proposed research should not commence until you have satisfied these requirements.

Please note that this approval is for four years and is conditional upon receipt of an annual Progress Report. Ethics approval for this project will lapse if a Progress Report is not submitted.

The following conditions apply to this approval. Failure to abide by these conditions may result in suspension or discontinuation of approval.

1. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval, to ensure the project is conducted as approved by the Ethics Committee, and to notify the Committee if any investigators are added to, or cease involvement with, the project.

2. Complaints: If any complaints are received or ethical issues arise during the course of the project, investigators should advise the Executive Officer of the Ethics Committee on 03 6226 7479 or human.ethics@utas.edu.au.

3. Incidents or adverse effects: Investigators should notify the Ethics Committee immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.

4. Amendments to Project: Modifications to the project must not proceed until approval is obtained from the Ethics Committee. Please submit an Amendment Form (available on our website) to notify the Ethics Committee of the proposed modifications.

5. Annual Report: Continued approval for this project is dependent on the submission of a Progress Report by the anniversary date of your approval. You will be sent a courtesy reminder closer to this date. **Failure to submit a Progress Report will mean that ethics approval for this project will lapse.**

6. Final Report: A Final Report and a copy of any published material arising from the project, either in full or abstract, must be provided at the end of the project.

Yours sincerely

Katherine Shaw
Executive Officer
Tasmania Social Sciences HREC

Appendix M

Interview and Questionnaire Information Sheet

SCHOOL ASSOCIATION INFORMATION SHEET
Attracting and Retaining Teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising Responsibility to Improve Current Practice

1. Invitation
You are invited to participate in a research study to investigate ways to attract and retain teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania. The study is being conducted in partial fulfillment of a Doctorate of Education by Janet Mackenzie under the supervision of Professor Kim Beswick and Dr. Tammy Jones of the University of Tasmania's Faculty of Education.

2. What is the purpose of this study?
The purpose of the study is to investigate the views of various stakeholders in relation to attracting teachers to work in the four government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania, as well as their views about retaining teachers once they are employed in those schools. The study will specifically examine strategies and incentives used to attract and retain teachers to such communities.

The student investigator is the principal at Zeehan Primary School and hence a stakeholder. Nevertheless, the student investigator will not be participating as a stakeholder in the research.

3. Why have I been invited to participate?
All members of the School Associations of Mountain Heights School, Rosebery District High School, Strahan and Zeehan Primary Schools are being invited to participate in the study as representatives of their respective parent and school communities. Education is a matter that affects the community as a whole, and you may have an opinion on this issue based on your direct involvement in your local school.

4. What will I be asked to do?
If you agree to participate in the study, you will be asked to participate in a group interview about your views in relation to the role parents and the community may/may not have in attracting teachers to the West Coast, as well as your views about the role parents and the community may/may not have in retaining teachers.

If you agree to participate in the study, the interview will take place in the school in which you are at or at another appropriate venue of your choosing. The interview will take place after at a time and on a date that are mutually convenient. It is expected the interview will take approximately one hour. The interview questions will be provided to you prior to the interview.

With your permission an audio recording of the interview will be made and you will be provided with the opportunity to review and correct your contributions to the transcript.

No individual members of the association will be identified in reports of the study.

5. Are there any possible benefits from participation in this study?
There is probably no individual benefit to you in relation to your participation in this study, however it is anticipated that recommendations for attracting and retaining teachers to the four government schools on the West Coast of Tasmania will be a significant outcome of the study.

6. Are there any possible risks from participation in this study?
There are no foreseeable risks from participating in the study. You may decline to answer any or all of the questions or ask that your involvement in the interview cease at any time without explanation or consequence. You will be able to view and amend your contributions to the interview transcripts and ask that any part of the data or all data that you have contributed be withdrawn from the study prior to

publication. The researcher will treat all data gathered in the interview with confidentiality and will remind participants in the group interview of the importance of confidentiality at the start of the interview. You should be aware however; that the researcher cannot guarantee that other participants will treat information disclosed in the interview confidentially.

7. What if I change my mind during or after the study?
Your involvement in the study is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time without explanation or consequence. You may request that any or all data provided by you during the interview be excluded from the final report.

8. What will happen to the information when this study is over?
All raw data (audio recordings and written notes taken during the interview) will be stored at the Launceston campus of the University of Tasmania in locked cabinets accessible only by the researcher. Names and other identifying information will be removed from these documents and replaced with codes. Computer files will be password protected and stored on a secure server in the Faculty of Education, Launceston campus. Five years after publication of the final report or any other publications resulting from the study, all transcripts and field notes will be shredded, computer files deleted and audio tapes destroyed.

9. How will the results of the study be published?
A report of the study will be provided to the Department of Education through Learning Services North West and to each of the four West Coast government schools, the Tasmanian branch of the Australian Education Union, the Faculty of Education Launceston campus of the University of Tasmania and the West Coast Council all of whom will also be invited to contribute data to the project.

Individual participants from school associations will not be identifiable in the report or any publications arising from the study.

10. What if I have questions about this study?
If you have any questions relating to this study, feel free to contact either member of the research team.

Professor Kim Beswick: (03) 6324 3167 or Email: Kim.Beswick@utas.edu.au

Dr. Tammy Jones: Email: Tammy.Jones@utas.edu.au

Janet Mackenzie: mobile 04.. ..... or Email Janet.Mackenzie@utas.edu.au

We would be happy to discuss any aspect of the research with you.

This study has been approved by the Tasmanian Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have concerns or complaints about the conduct of this study, please contact the Executive Officer of the HREC (Tasmania) Network on (03) 6226 7479 or email human.ethics@utas.edu.au. The Executive Officer is the person nominated to receive complaints from research participants. Ethics reference number [H0014097].

Thank you for taking your time to consider this study. If you are happy to take part in it, please sign the attached consent form, place it in the stamped, addressed envelope provided and return it to the researchers. This information is for you to keep.

Yours sincerely,

Janet Mackenzie Prof Kim Beswick Dr Tammy Jones

Appendix N

Interview Consent Form

SCHOOL ASSOCIATION CONSENT FORM

Attracting and Retaining Teachers on the West Coast of Tasmania: Recognising Responsibility to Improve Current Practice

1. I agree to take part in the research study named above.
2. I have read and understood the Information Sheet for this study.
3. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me.
4. I understand that the study involves members of the school association participating in a group interview (~1 hour duration) to provide our collective views about the role parents and the community may/may not have in attracting teachers to the West Coast as well as our beliefs on the role parents and the community may/may not have in retaining teachers.
5. I understand that participation in this aspect of the research project involves no foreseeable risks.
6. I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the Launceston Campus of the University of Tasmania premises for five years from the publication of any data resulting from the study, and will then be destroyed.
7. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.
8. I understand that the researchers will maintain confidentiality and that any information I supply to the researchers will be used only for the purposes of the research.
9. I understand that the results of the study will be published and that I will not be identified as an individual participant.
10. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without explanation or consequence.
11. If I so wish, I may request that any or all data that I have provided during the interview be withdrawn from the research.

Name of the school association: _____

Name of school association member agreeing to participate in the study: _____

Signature of school association member agreeing to participate in the study: _____

Date: _____

Statement by Investigator: The participants have received the Information Sheet where my details have been provided so participants have had the opportunity to contact me prior to consenting to participate in this project.

Name of Investigator	Signature	Date
Professor Kim Beswick	_____	_____
Dr. Tammy Jones	_____	_____
Janet Mackenzie	_____	_____

Page 1 of 1

Appendix O
Glossary

Compassionate Transfer

A compassionate transfer can be requested by a teacher based on exceptional circumstances and could include a serious medical condition of the teacher, or immediate family and disabilities of the teacher or immediate family. If either a medical condition or disability is the reason for the request, documented evidence has to be provided. A compassionate transfer can be requested to move to another geographical location due to a work-related relocation of a spouse or long-term partner, or an urgent family reason. Compassionate transfers can be requested at any time. These transfers are immediately considered and remain active for duration of the year the request is submitted. If a compassionate transfer request is not granted in the year of application the teacher needs to reapply the following year (Tasmanian Industrial Commission, 2013).

Short-Term Contract

A short-term contract, or fixed term teaching vacancies as referred to by the Tasmanian Department of Education, is anything over 20 working days in duration (DoE, 2014a)

Planning for Positive Behaviour

The unit will explore the theoretical and practical issues concerned with establishing and maintaining positive learning environments that allow all students to participate fully in educational opportunities. The unit will explore preventive strategies to establish a positive classroom climate in all education settings; corrective strategies to respond to disruptive

behaviours in order to maintain a focus on learning; and supportive strategies to address the higher-level needs of individual students including discipline/crisis/emergency response for disruptive student behaviour. The content will be studied through an interactive learning process including case studies, role play and rehearsal of appropriate language and non-verbal responses, to link theory and practice in class and individual management situations. Students will develop a behaviour management plan to be evaluated, refined and further developed through their later practicum experiences (UTAS, 2017a).

Neighbourhood Centres

Neighbourhood Houses or Centres are Tasmanian Government funded places where people can go to support their local community. Neighbourhood Houses involve community members working together to make changes in their community, on issues that affect them. They offer a range of programs and activities for local people. At the time of this study there were 35 Neighbourhood Houses in Tasmania, each working independently with a volunteer committee of governance and managed day-to-day by volunteers and staff (Neighbourhood Houses Tasmania, 2016).

Appendix P

PEIRS Program

Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools (PEIRS) Program

Information for students

What is the PEIRS Program?

The PEIRS Program encourages pre-service teachers to undertake their final placement in participating rural and isolated schools by providing financial support for accommodation and travel.
The intention of the PEIRS Program is to support students who must relocate to undertake their placement.

What am I entitled to under the placement program?

Travel costs

For most placements 3 return trips by car or 2 return flights from the Bass Strait Islands from your home to the location of the placement.

Accommodation

Accommodation costs are covered which may in DoE housing or private rental organised on your behalf and paid directly by the participating school.

Welcome Package

A Welcome package of basic food supplies may also be provided depending on the style of accommodation.

Interested in finding out more about the PEIRS Program?

Discuss your interest in a rural placement with University staff to determine whether you will eligible for PEIRS support.

Uni Contact:
Coordinator of Professional Experience:
Sarah Reaburn
Email: sarah.reaburn@utas.edu.au
Telephone: (03) 6324 3154

When your placement is confirmed, contact the school to discuss PEIRS support.

More detailed information is available in the Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools Program available at www.education.tas.gov.au). A list of participating schools is provided on the back of this document.

For additional information or clarification please contact Lyn Metcalfe in Human Resources Management Branch on 6165 6263 or email lyn.metcalfe@education.tas.gov.au

Corporate and Business Services
Department of Education

Tasmanian Government

Professional Experience in Isolated and Rural Schools (PEIRS) Program - Participating Schools

Learning Group	School
Learning (North)	Avoca Primary School Bicheno Primary School Bridport Primary School Campbell Town District High School Flinders Island District High School Forest Primary School King Island District High School Mole Creek Primary School Mountain Heights School Redpa Primary School Ringarooma Primary School Rosebery District High School Scottsdale High School Scottsdale Primary School Smithton High School Smithton Primary School Stanley Primary School St Helens District High School St Marys District School Strahan Primary School Wilmot Primary School Winnaleah District High School Zeehan Primary School
Learning (South)	Bothwell District High School Cygnet Primary School Dover District School Dunalley Primary School Geeveston Primary School Glen Huon Primary School Glenora District High School Oatlands District High School Ouse District School Swansea Primary School Tasman District School Triabunna District School Westerway Primary School

Appendix Q

Beginning Teacher Time Release Program (BeTTR)

Beginning Teacher Time Release Program (BeTTR)

1. General Information

In accordance with the requirements of Learning Together the Department of Education, Tasmania has developed the Beginning Teacher Time Release (BeTTR) program to give support to beginning teachers.

A beginning teacher for this program is a permanent or fixed-term teacher who is in his/her first year of employment. In addition, program participants must be employed at 0.5 full-time equivalent or above for at least one school term in that first year of employment.

The Teaching Service (Tasmanian Public Sector) Award requires teachers to undertake a maximum instructional load of 22 hours per week (primary) or 20 hours per week (secondary/college). Under the BeTTR Program, full-time beginning teachers are required to access a minimum instructional load time release of two hours per week. The two hour time release period may be "banked" up to a maximum period of six hours to accommodate a block release for the beginning teacher to attend or participate in a one day professional development program or activity. This provides flexibility in meeting the individual professional development needs of the beginning teacher and the operational requirements of the school/college.

The extent of time release for a part-time beginning teacher will be on a pro rata basis according to the actual hours worked eg a beginning teacher employed at 0.5 FTE can access one hour release time per week.

The BeTTR program is designed to supplement but not replace individual and school professional learning programs. Funding will be made available to schools to cover relief for release time for the beginning teacher.

The purpose of time release will vary according to the needs of each beginning teacher, but may include:

- induction programs relating to the school, Learning Service and Department;
- ongoing "feedback" meetings with senior staff and/or other experienced teachers; attendance at specific professional development programs;
- observation of experienced teachers in the classroom;
- additional "time out" for lesson preparation;
- visiting other schools/colleges – discussions with experienced teachers;
- visit the Learning Service;
- meetings with relevant Learning Service curriculum officers;
- attendance at "awareness" meetings; and
- collaboration with, and attendance at meetings with, other beginning teachers within the Learning Service.

The actual content of the BeTTR program will be negotiated between the Principal, appropriate supervisory staff, and the beginning teacher. The Principal will maintain responsibility for monitoring each program.

It is again emphasised that time release under the BeTTR program shall not be a substitute for the normal school/college professional learning program(s).

Each school/college employing a beginning teacher must submit to their General Manager Learning Services a separate Beginning Teacher Time Release Program Application Form [staff access only] with a proposed plan of activities for the beginning teacher.

2. Contact Details

If you require further information concerning the BeTTR program, please contact the Regional HR Coordinator in your Learning Service.

3. Related Documents

The following documents are available from www.education.tas.gov.au.

- Beginning Teacher Time Release Program Application Form [Staff access only.] (Doc ID: TASED-4-2996)

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